The Little Grammar

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BY

E. A. CROSS

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AND
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BOSTON
LITTLE, BROWN, AND COMPANY
1929

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THE ATLANTIC MONTHLY PRESS

First large impression, October, 1922
Second large impression, September, 1923
Third large impression, September, 1924
Fourth large impression, April, 1925
Fifth large impression, September, 1925
Sixth large impression, December, 1925
Seventh large impression, October, 1926
Eighth large impression, July, 1927
Ninth large impression, March, 1928
Tenth large impression, February, 1929
Eleventh large impression, October, 1929

THE ATLANTIC MONTHLY PRESS PUBLICATIONS
ARE PUBLISHED BY
LITTLE, BROWN, AND COMPANY
IN ASSOCIATION WITH
THE ATLANTIC MONTHLY COMPANY

PRINTED IN THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA

PREFACE

THE LITTLE GRAMMAR attempts to set forth all the facts about English Grammar that have a function in shaping the language of young people. No one now believes that "grammar books" make children's speech. That process is one of gradual growth, mostly through unconscious imitation. If all the language a child hears were faultless, there would be but little occasion for a textbook in grammar. Imitation, conscious and unconscious, would supply all the language that a child would ever need, whether he expected to be a day laborer or a novelist. Unfortunately we cannot eliminate grammar from school curricula, for no child hears expressive, elegant, faultless English all his days. Every child, every adult, finds it necessary occasionally to look forward as he speaks or writes, and to construct consciously the sentences that are to express his thought. Not only is this conscious prevision necessary, but a conscious revision is just as imperative — a revision to make what is said or written conform to the laws of good usage.

To say that is to say nothing new. The new thing is to try to make a grammar that will set forth only those laws of good usage that are really necessary as a guide to one who is looking forward as he expresses himself, or backward as he passes judgment upon what he has said. Such a book would be a *functional* grammar, for it would set forth the minimum essentials of grammar, — only those grammar facts that have a function, — omitting all those that are merely interesting to a mature student of language. This book makes that attempt.

The author is conscious of breaking away from two well-established traditions. First, the series of language books usually provided for children contains all the materials for language, composition, and, to a certain extent, literary studies. This involves the use of two or three volumes. Second, the books are large — three or four hundred pages to the volume.

The functional method assumes that spoken and written language in the grades, from the first to the sixth, should be taught in connection with every lesson of the day — with the arithmetic, the geography, the history, but more especially with the lessons in reading, story-telling, and literature. Some schools will want to continue with the special period for spoken and written English. There is no objection to that plan beyond the fact that it formalizes and makes conscious a thing that should be informal and unconscious.

This book is made upon the assumption that the conscious or unconscious language lessons in the earlier grades will have brought to the pupils all the facts that are presented here. It then tries to organize, in as brief a series of lessons as possible, every fact that has any function in determining what good usage is. It has been planned to be used for a half-year in the beginning grade. In the next grade, the whole matter should be gone over again, for the purpose of fixing the earlier impressions. This should be done in ten or twelve weeks. The book may, of course, be used in other grades, for reference and review.

In all the junior high-school grades, the lessons in literature should be given in the form of complete pieces of classic and contemporary literary productions, such as will *interest* children of adolescent years. The lessons in composition should be the daily oral and written recitations in geography, arithmetic, history, physiology, literature and

reading, and the other school-subjects. Such lessons will have a motive, and will, therefore, be more than exercises in oral and written composition.

It is assumed that the pupil who studies this book has already met in his previous inductive lessons every fact that the book contains. This volume merely sets forth the previously studied facts briefly and in an orderly way. It is a book whose purpose is to *organize* what the pupil knows about the English language, to review those known facts and to drill upon them, and to serve as a reference-book in grammar, just as a dictionary serves in its field. In brief, the ambition of the author is to present to young people, in a very small volume, a series of lessons including all the essential facts about English which young people need to know. By viewing his task constantly from their standpoint, the author hopes that he has succeeded in taking away the drudgery of grammar study from the school lives of those girls and boys.

E. A. C.

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INTRODUCTION

THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE

To the Teacher. — *Make a reading-lesson of the chapter on the English Language. Do not ask the pupils to memorize the facts, but talk this narrative over with them as they read.*

The English language is spoken in the United States and in all countries of the British Empire, including the widely separated countries of Australia, New Zealand, and Canada, as well as England, Scotland, Ireland, and Wales. The language is so well known, and the peoples who use it are so widely distributed over the civilized world, that one who speaks only the English language may go almost anywhere in the world and make himself understood. English-speaking traders and travelers go everywhere, and hence it has become advantageous to the people of remote places to be able to speak this much-used tongue.

No one language has yet become universal; but English is used by more persons and in more places than German, French, or Spanish, the three other widely used languages. One who speaks English with ease and accuracy and simplicity is very fortunate, for he can express his thoughts in words that will be understood almost anywhere. But if he has any interest in being exactly understood, and in preserving English as a world-speech, he must learn to speak the words of the language distinctly, to pronounce them as educated men and women everywhere pronounce them, and to combine them in sentences according to the laws and customs which educated English speakers everywhere em-

ploy. This last requirement is what we have in mind when we speak of the *grammar* of the English language.

Greek and Latin we call dead languages. English, French, and German we speak of as living languages. The first two are called "dead" because, in their ancient or classic forms, they are no longer spoken, and being no longer spoken, they do not grow. The living languages get new words as new needs arise. A machine is invented, by the use of which a man can fly through the air at a hundred miles an hour. We name it an *aeroplane*, or *airplane*. The Latins had no such machine, and so could have no such word. And as the language is no longer spoken, no word with that meaning will be added to that language.

New *nouns* are not the only words added to a living language, but new verbs, new adjectives, and new adverbs come into use as need for them arises. Spellings change, pronunciations change slightly, and the meanings change as well. These changes are slow, however. Very little change is made in ten or twenty years — not enough to be noticed; but a comparison of the language as it is now spoken with what was used four or five hundred years ago will show great changes.

A HISTORY OF OUR LANGUAGE

The English language did not originate in England. All the languages of Europe, and of the countries in the New World which have been peopled by Europeans, are somewhat alike, as if they had come from one common source. Some words sound somewhat alike in several languages. *Father* in English, is *páter* in Latin, *pádre* in Spanish, *váter* in German, and πάτηρ (pronounced pätār) in ancient Greek. The people who brought to England the original dialects which afterward became English, came from the lowlands

lying along the North Sea and the Baltic Sea — lands now occupied by Denmark and the German state of Schleswig-Holstein. The tribes were called Angles, Saxons, and Jutes. They came as invaders into southeastern England about the year A.D. 449, and pushed the native Britons back toward Wales and Cornwall. The new Germanic dialects blended, and became the language of the more civilized part of Britain. The country itself was soon called Angle Land, and the language that was made by the blending of the dialects of the Angles, Saxons, and, to a smaller extent, the Jutes, was later called Anglo-Saxon.

This new language gradually supplanted the old British, but did not entirely destroy it. British still survives, in a modified form, in Welsh, and in some other dialects. The new language grew and changed from century to century, until it became the English of the present day. In its old form, used from A.D. 500 to 900, it was as much like modern German as it was like modern English. But the German language has developed in its way, and the English in its, so that they now show little resemblance, except to the student of languages.

To illustrate the steps in the growth of the language, several examples of English at different periods, about two hundred years apart, are shown here. The first is the Lord's Prayer in Anglo-Saxon of about the year 900.

Fæder ure, þu þe eart on heofenum
Father our thou that art in heavens

Si þin nama gehalgod
Be thy name hallowed

To becume þin rīce
Arrive thy kingdom

Geweoþe þin willa on eorþan, swa swa on heofenum
Be-done thy will on earth just as in heavens

Urne dæghwamlican hlāf syle us to dæg
Our daily loaf give us to-day

And forgyf us ūre gyltas, swa swa we forgifaþ urum gyltendum
And forgive us our debts, just as we forgive our debtors

And ne gelǣde þū us on costnunge, ac alȳs us of yfle
And not lead thou us into temptation, but loose us from evil

Soþlice.
Truly.

The second illustration is from the "Anglo-Saxon Chronicle" for the year 1137. It is the closing sentence of a long narrative of unjust acts of the year.

I ne can ne I ne mai tellen alle the wunder ne alle the
I not can nor I not may tell all the wonders nor all the

pines that hi diden wrecce men on this land; and that
tortures that they did to wretched men in this land; and that

lastede tha .xix. wintre wile Stephne was king,
lasted the nineteen winters (years) while Stephen was king,

and ævre it was uuerse and uuerse.
and ever it was worse and worse.

In the year 1066, Duke William of Normandy, called William the Conqueror, defeated the Saxon King, Harold of England, at Hastings, and became himself King of England. The French language, as it was spoken in Normandy (northwestern France), became the official language, and for a long time the literary language, of England. Anglo-Saxon was still spoken by the common people, but

it changed rapidly. Being written but little, its forms were not very permanent. You can see that by 1137 it had become quite like modern English.

The next selection shows still greater changes. It is the opening couplet of a long narrative poem written about 1350, by William Langland, and called "The Vision of Piers the Plowman." The language is strange in spelling, but most of the words sound like modern English, and the lines are fairly easy to read without a special study of the language of that period.

In a somer sesun, whon softe was the sonne
In a summer season when soft was the sun(shine)

I schop me into a shroud, as I a scheep were.
I got me into a garment, as I a shepherd were.

Anglo-Saxon is the foundation of modern English, especially of its grammar; but the language has been enriched from many sources. Some old British words, such as *dun*, meaning *dune*, *down*, or *hill*, were kept. Many Latin words were brought in by priests and scholars. French words were borrowed from the Norman-French. Some Danish words came with the invasions of the Norsemen in the eighth century. In later years, and in our own time, travel and trade have brought into the English language many words from many languages from all parts of the world.

The language is living, and, like every living thing, it is constantly growing. It adds new words and drops useless old ones. It even changes its grammar slightly. The subjunctive mode has almost gone out of use in a hundred years. We still say, "If I were," "If he were," etc., but only a few speakers still use, "If he be," "If she read," etc. In *oral* speech the form *whom* seems to be passing out of use at the beginning of a sentence. We always *write*, "*Whom*

were you expecting to meet?" but in colloquial speech there is a tendency to *say*, "*Who* did you expect to meet?" When the word occurs with a preposition at the beginning of a sentence, we always speak, or write, *whom:* "For *whom* were you looking?"

The English language is a rich inheritance. It is like a beautifully made musical instrument, handed down from generation to generation, and prized by the family which comes into possession of it. It should not be marred by careless usage. If you owned a harp upon which the Saxon bards had once played the accompaniment to "Beowulf," you would hardly desecrate it with ragtime. No more should you desecrate the language, the instrument of expression, which served Chaucer and Shakespeare and Tennyson, and all the poets and thinkers who have used the good English tongue, by expressing empty-minded nothings in ill-chosen, badly enunciated, and badly pronounced words, thrown together into slovenly sentences. You have inherited the English language. It is a simple and beautiful speech, capable of expressing every human thought, the simplest or the most profound or the most eloquent. Use it as if you valued the instrument, and thought it a privilege to keep it for yourself and to teach others its beauties, and its usefulness as a means of conveying thought from mind to mind.

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PART I

THE ELEMENTS OF A SENTENCE

Teaching Direction. — *This book has been prepared for classes that have already had language-study through the lower grades. It is taken for granted that the pupils who study these lessons are already familiar with the names of the parts of speech, and that they are able to recognize them when they see them. If a class has not had such language-study, the teacher may find it expedient to begin with Part II, and then return to Part I. The author believes that, for most classes, the order of the book is the logical one for the kind of study of language the pupil is likely to need.*

LESSON 1

GRAMMAR THE SCIENCE OF THE SENTENCE

We have customary ways of saying things in speaking our language, and in most cases there is a logical reason for each of the customs. Now, the science which observes the customs followed in making our English sentences, and which arranges these observations in an orderly way, so that we may refer to them when in doubt about how to speak or write a sentence, is *English Grammar*.

Authority and Usage

No person, no textbook of grammar, no maker of a dictionary is *the* authority for good usage, for correct English.

Whatever is the customary usage in writing and speaking among cultured and educated English-speaking people is correct English. Usage is *the* authority — usage, that is, of the best writers and speakers. Textbooks do not make the customs: they merely report what the customary good usage is.

English Grammar not Difficult

English Grammar is the science of the English Sentence. What the junior high-school pupil needs to know about the English sentence is neither very complex nor very difficult. When you know all about how sentences are made, you know all about English Grammar. There are many irregularities, many variations, and many inconsistencies in our language, which the literary man or woman must know; but the task of the junior high-school pupil is not a very large or very difficult one.

The Levels of Language

Very few people "talk just like a book." Of course, the language of the few people who do "talk like a book" is correct; but it is too formal, too stiff, for easy oral exchange of thought. It does not sound quite natural. It seems artificial. A writer uses certain sentence arrangements and certain formal words that are not common in free-and-easy speaking. These forms are just what are wanted in literary composition, but not in oral communication. Some other forms of speech are not correct, even in the most informal talk. All these grades of speech constitute what we shall call here the "Levels of Language." There are five of these grades, or levels. The first is correct for formal writing, the second correct for oral use, and the other three not permissible in either formal writing or elegant speech. The five levels are:

1. **Literary English.** — This is the language which is used in formal writing, such as magazine articles, novels, essays, stories, formal public addresses, and very formal letters.

2. **Colloquial English.** — This is the language used in conversation, in informal letters, and in any writing that imitates speech. Although not of so high a standard as the literary language, it is correct in its place. Colloquial English differs from the literary mostly in sentence arrangement, in the use of contractions, such as *does n't*, *won't*, *is n't*, and in the frequent use of elliptical sentences. The diction (choice of words) also is less formal than that used in literary English.

3. **Provincial English.** — Provincial English makes use of words, phrases, and sentence arrangements which are not used by the cultured English-speaking world, but only in some section of the country.

"Tie your *broncho* up in the *corral*."
"Do that *like* we do."
"I *admire* to have met you."
"I *guess* he is the best man for the place."
"I *reckon* she 'll be home before dusk."

4. **Slang** is picturesque, new English, invented to say a thing quickly and strikingly. Its usual course is to spring up quickly, to flourish for a few months, or for a year or two, and then to disappear. But sometimes a slang word or phrase is so expressive and so useful that it becomes, first, colloquial, and then literary, English. Slang is not bad if used only occasionally, to give color to one's speech. The great danger lies in acquiring the *slang habit*. One who has the habit finds it impossible to think of good words when he needs to speak correctly and carefully.

5. **Vulgar English** is that which is spoken by the uneducated, uncultured mass. It is worse than slang. It is never admissible, for its use marks the speaker as a person uneducated, uncultured, and without taste.

Such words as *ain't*, *hain't*, *airy* and *nairy*, *hisn*, *hern*, *chaw*, and *'taters* are all vulgar. Phrases like *ain't got no* and *had n't orter* belong to this class.

Written Work

Make lists of such incorrect expressions as you hear commonly or are already acquainted with, under the three headings:

I. Provincialisms
II. Slang
III. Vulgarisms

Note that both *slang* and *vulgarisms* may be *provincial;* that is, they may be used in certain parts of the country, but not in others. It is interesting to determine from what section of the country the people have come who use these expressions. Without offending those who use them, find out as much as you can about the origin of the words or phrases. For example, if you hear someone say *different than*, instead of *different from*, inquire where he or his parents came from. Or, if a playmate speaks of *packing* an armful of wood, try to find out what part of the country uses *pack* for *carry*.

Make your three lists like the model below. Try to find twenty or more examples of each kind of error.

I. Provincialisms.

1. (*a*) Quote the sentence: "How did your garden pan out this year?"
   (*b*) Correct the sentence, using any correct form, such as, "What success did you have with your garden this year?"

(*c*) Note, if possible, the origin of the provincialism. *Pan out* is used in gold-mining in the West, where a gold pan is used to separate the particles of gold from the sand.

2. Can't you-all come to play with us Tuesday?
   Can't you (or all of you children) come to play with us Tuesday?
   A Southern provincialism.

3.

4. and so following, to twenty or more.

II. Slang.

1. (*a*) Winston cracked his bean in the gym to-day.
   (*b*) Winston bumped his head in the gymnasium to-day.
   (*c*) Origin of the use of *bean* for *head* not known.

NOTE. — Since Slang and Vulgarisms are usually of unknown origin, and are not commonly confined to any one part of the country, the third point may be omitted.

2.

3.

4. and so following, to twenty or more.

Teaching Direction. — *There is work here for three days, for a class of average ability. If you wish to use three days for this kind of work, make a separate lesson for each* level *of* speech. *After all the pupils have reported their lists, make up a final, comprehensive list on the blackboard, by combining the examples of all the pupils in one list, using each incorrect form only once in the final list. Have this list neatly copied and bound, for later reference for yourself and the class.*

LESSON 2

THE SENTENCE

A Sentence is a group of words expressing a complete thought

Yellow roses covered the wall.
They have gone to the camp.
Mountains are very imposing.

You will see below some groups of words which express a complete thought, and others which merely make you think of something without actually expressing the thought. Divide these into two groups, the first group being sentences (expressing a complete thought), and the second group being non-sentences (merely calling up a mental picture).

1. The car was driven rapidly.
2. The rapidly driven car.
3. In early spring.
4. These are my kodak pictures.
5. Pictures of our mountain camp.
6. We make our garden early in the spring.
7. Snowballing in winter.
8. Apples are gathered in October.
9. Red brick chimneys upon the houses.
10. These trees are olive.
11. The background is too dark.
12. The lighter colors.

Now add something to each of the non-sentences which will make it a sentence. Rearrange it, if necessary.

Examples:

The rapidly driven car.
The car *was* driven rapidly.

Now make four non-sentences, and then change them to sentences by adding to and rearranging them.

Two necessary parts to any sentence

Subject part	*Predicate part*
1. Paper	burns.
2. Pineapples	do not grow on pine trees.
3. The seeds of pine trees	are found in the cones.
4. Butterflies	come from cocoons.
5. His military medal	was won in France.
6. This brave man	was wounded there.
7. Who	invented that machine?

Predicate Part. — One part of the sentence makes the statement. This is called the *predicate.*

Subject Part. — The other part is the naming part. It names the thing (*the subject*) concerning which the statement is made.

Sentence Order. — English sentences usually have the subject first and the predicate following. All the sentences above are so arranged. But questions and poetry frequently reverse the order of the parts.

Examples:

Predicate	*Subject*
Is your favorite color	lavender?
From what country came	this strange man?

Or the words that make up the two parts are mingled.

Examples:

Predicate	*Subject*	*Predicate*
Are	these	your gloves?
Did	Fulton	build the first steamboat?
Why are	you	going?

To make sure what words belong to the subject part, you may rearrange the question so that the form of the sentence will then be a complete statement.

	Subject	*Predicate*
1.	Lavender	is your favorite color.
2.	This strange man	came from what country?
3.	These	are what you want.
4.	Fulton	did build the first steamboat.
5.	You	are going why?

Commands and Requests. — Frequently the subject is omitted in sentences which give a command or make a request. The word *you*, whether included or omitted, is nearly always the subject of such sentences.

Examples:

Subject	*Predicate*
———	Forgive my thoughtlessness.
You	get out at once.
———	Grant our petition.

NOTE. — If *you* is actually written or spoken in such a sentence, it makes the subject much more emphatic than it would be otherwise.

Vocatives. — In these sentences we sometimes use the name of the one of whom the request is made, or the one who is commanded.

Examples:

Martha, (you) come in for a moment.
(You) Ride, ride, Messala!

These calling words are called *Vocatives.* (*Voco* is the Latin word meaning *call.*)

The vocative is independent of the subject and predicate parts.

Punctuation. — 1. A sentence which states a fact (a Declarative Sentence) is followed by a period (.).

2. A sentence which asks a question (an Interrogative Sentence) is followed by a question mark (?).

3. A sentence which commands or requests (an Imperative Sentence) is followed by a period (.).

4. Any one of the three kinds of sentences already named may be expressed with strong emotion or vehemently. These then become exclamations, and are followed by the exclamation point (!).

Examples:

1. How quickly the time goes!
2. What is this I hear!
3. Forward march!
4. Ride, ride, Messala!

LESSON 3

TEACHING DIRECTION

Oral. — *Have the pupils make up a number of sentences such as they will use during the day's recitations in any subject, — history, geography, physiology, arithmetic, — and in all the sentence-forms. Require them to divide each sentence into subject and predicate parts. Have this done until you feel sure that* each *pupil can do it without hesitation or error. Your class may show the ability to do this in a single recitation. Individual pupils may need further instruction. If the class does not acquire this knowledge and skill in a single lesson, use all the time necessary, even if it runs on to a week or more. This is a matter of first importance to each pupil. Work at it till you know that every pupil can quickly and unerringly distinguish between a sentence and a non-sentence, and can divide sentences into subject parts and predicate parts.*

LESSON 4

TEACHING DIRECTION

Written. — *Require each pupil to write a group of sentences, a dozen or more, such as they use in their daily lessons. The sentences must be correctly punctuated* [1] as they are written. *Then have each sentence divided into subject and predicate parts. Continue this, as in Lesson 3, until each pupil can, without hesitation, do all three of the things required.*

1. *Sentence construction*
2. *End punctuation*
3. *Division into the two essential parts*

Use as many days as are necessary for this.

LESSON 5

A REVIEW

First, punctuate each sentence as it stands.

Second, divide each into subject and predicate parts. Set out the vocatives as independent elements.

Third, point out the sentences that require exclamation points as they stand.

Fourth, determine what other sentences in the group could be stated so vehemently or emotionally that an exclamation point would be appropriate.

[1] This book teaches all the essentials of punctuation, introducing each principle as it is needed. It is, therefore, necessary to take up each need as it arises, and practise it until that particular use of a punctuation mark becomes an unconscious *habit*. The working-principles of punctuation are reasonable and simple. Teach them so thoroughly that no pupil of yours will ever after think of punctuation as a mystery understood only by the literary man or woman.

1. Brushing the teeth prevents their decay
2. What are some of the agricultural products of Switzerland
3. How brilliant the sunset is
4. These rocks are of volcanic formation
5. Twenty is four per cent of five hundred
6. When the cool nights come, grapes begin to ripen
7. Bake your cookies in a hot oven
8. Is there a good reason for thinking so
9. Why delay longer
10. Grant us a half-holiday to-morrow Mr. Blake
11. Melons grow best in a sandy soil
12. Stitch the cuffs to the sleeve next
13. Make a paste of the cocoa and sugar with boiling water before stirring these into the milk
14. Do you refuse to follow directions
15. What means of transportation Harry would you expect to find in Persia
16. Print paper is mostly made from wood pulp
17. Adjectives give color and variety to sentences
18. Who is so base as to be a bondman
19. Give me liberty or give me death
20. The winters are too bleak for fruit-raising
21. The old Liberty bell is now badly cracked
22. Ring out wild bells to the wild sky
23. We find our interest problems easy now
24. Pronounce your *-ing* words more distinctly

NOTE. — The only function that the terms Declarative, Interrogative, Imperative, and Exclamatory have, is to connect a name with a certain form of punctuation mark. Some authorities advise the intelligent teaching of the punctuation without employing those sentence-names.

LESSON 6

INDEPENDENT ELEMENTS IN SENTENCES

Most of the sentences we have had in previous lessons contain just two parts, subject and predicate. A few of them have contained vocatives in addition to the subject part and predicate part. The sentences which follow have, in addition to the two main parts, a word, or group of words, which is not a part of either subject or predicate. These sentences are complete without the independent element — the word, or words, printed in italics.

1. **Vocatives** (sometimes called the **Nominative of Address**):

Language, *sir*, is the dress of thought.
Language is the dress of thought, *Charles*.

2. **Parenthetical Expressions:**

"Language," *says Dr. Johnson*, "is the dress of thought."
Language is, *I repeat*, the dress of thought.

3. **Appositives:**

Language, *the spoken word*, is the dress of thought.

4. **Responsives *yes* and *no*:**

Yes, language is the dress of thought.
No, language is not the dress of thought.

5. **Expletives *it* and *there*:**

It is satisfying to know that.

Subj. *Pred.*
(To know that . . . is satisfying.)
There are forty pupils in the class.

Subj. *Pred.*
(Forty pupils . . . are in the class.)

6. **Interjections, Exclamations, Preparatory Words, and Exclamatory Nominatives:**

Look! See the snow-capped peaks!
What a foolish notion! It could not be done in that way.
I! You can't say that I did that.
Well, I admit that language is the dress of thought.

7. **Absolute Constructions** (sometimes called the **Nominative Absolute**):

The day being warm, we went without wraps.

8. **Pleonasm**:

Thy rod and thy staff, they comfort me.

INCORRECT USES OF INDEPENDENT ELEMENTS

Preparatory Words. — The habit of using *well* (*'ull*), and *why* (*w'y,*) as introductory words is a bad one. It makes the sentence that follows seem vague and hesitant. Speech filled with these words lacks positiveness. The occasional use of a preparatory word to give variety to the sentences, or to avoid a dogmatic statement, is not objectionable.

Absolute Constructions. — The absolute construction is perfectly correct. While not connected with the sentence, it usually gives a reason or indicates time. But since the phrase is built about a word ending in *-ing*, it is apt to degenerate into the phrase commonly called "the dangling participial modifier." Here are examples of both uses.

Absolute (correct):

Our lunch being eaten, we drove on up the hill toward our camp.

Dangling Participle (incorrect):

Having eaten our lunch, the old horse plodded on toward the camp.

In the second example, the dangling participle, the phrase does not give a reason or indicate time. It seems to say that the horse ate the lunch and then plodded on.

Pleonasm. — Pleonasm is a literary device used to give poetic beauty to a sentence by repeating the subject first as a noun and then as a pronoun. Thy *rod* (noun) and thy *staff* (noun), *they* (pronoun) comfort me. But when children say: "Frank, he hit me with a snowball," or "Mrs. Scott, she sent for Alice to come home," the construction is crude.

List separately the Independent Elements in each of the following sentences, and then rearrange the sentence and divide it into subject part and predicate part, thus:

Language, sir, is the dress of thought.

Independent element	*Subject part*	*Predicate part*
sir	language	is the dress of thought

1. The time having come, we started on our journey.
2. Why, that does n't seem reasonable.
3. He worked at his trade, gardening, for many years.
4. This report, I am sure, is exaggerated.
5. No, that is impossible.
6. It is necessary to learn all the tables.
7. Oh, what fun we have had.
8. Pictures being our greatest delight, we all went together to the art gallery.
9. Oh, Mary, go and call the cattle home.
10. You! it could not have been you.
11. The fruit being unripe, we left it on the trees.
12. There were seven pages to be memorized.
13. Their father tried, moreover, to assist them.
14. Your former friend, Ruth Miller, has moved away.
15. Yes, our guests have arrived.
16. Well, these may be good enough.

Correct these sentences.

1. Why, the teacher she asked me six questions.
2. While crocheting a piece of lace, the big circus elephant passed our house.
3. Having finished their work, Miss Alberts dismissed her pupils.
4. Mr. Burke he repairs motorcycles.

5. While drinking a large glass of lemonade, an ant crawled under Harvey's collar.

Punctuation. — All the Independent Elements, except the expletives, *it* and *there*, and the exclamations, are set out from the body of the sentence by commas. *It* and *there* are not set off at all. An exclamation, unless it happens to be a very mild one, is set off by an exclamation point. A comma is used to set out a mild exclamation.

Teaching Directions. — *The important thing for the pupil is not to learn the names of these constructions, but to recognize them as regular devices in speech and writing, and to know the function of each. For example, the expletives* it *and* there *are used as devices to reverse the order of the subject and predicate, for the sake of variety, or to shift the point of emphasis in the sentence.*

Have your pupils constantly correct themselves and each other in the use of crude pleonasm, the dangling participle, and the vague use of well *and* why.

LESSON 7 – Oct. 14

THE COMPLEMENTS OF THE VERB

Some predicates are single verbs; others are verb phrases; and still others are made up of a verb and an adjective, a verb and a noun, or a verb and a pronoun. The noun, pronoun, or adjective that completes the predicate is called the *complement* of the predicate.

	Subject	*Predicate verb*	*Complement*
Predicate a single verb	1. Birds	sing	
	2. Frogs	jump	
Predicate a verb phrase	3. Those	have been sold	
	4. George	could have succeeded	

	Subject	*Predicate verb*	*Complement*
Predicate a verb and a noun	5. Camels	are	animals
	6. Athletes	carry	weights
Predicate a verb and a pronoun	7. It	is	she
	8. Mother	called	her
Predicate a verb and an adjective	9. Apples	are	ripe
	10. She	is	happy

In the fifth and seventh sentences you will notice that the noun or pronoun in the predicate refers to the same thing as the subject noun or pronoun. These noun and pronoun complements of the predicate are called *predicate nouns* and *predicate pronouns.*

Adjective complements like those in the ninth and tenth sentences are called *predicate adjectives.*

The noun and pronoun complements in the sixth and eighth sentences are names of things different from the subject. These are called *direct objects* of the predicate verb.

SIMPLE SUBJECT, PREDICATE VERB, AND PREDICATE COMPLEMENT

Dreamily glimmer the sails of ships on the distant horizon.

Subject	*Predicate*
The sails of ships . . .	glimmer dreamily on the distant horizon

From the complete subject in any sentence one can usually select a single word as a simple subject, and from the complete predicate a single verb for predicate. The two together will make a statement of a complete thought.

Simple subject	*Predicate verb*
Sails	glimmer

Usually a single word may be taken from a sentence as *simple subject;* but the *predicate verb* is more frequently a

group of words in the form of a verb phrase. The predicate complement is usually a single word. After this lesson, when the word *subject* or *predicate* is used, it will mean the *simple subject* or the *predicate verb* alone. When the whole subject or whole predicate is wanted, we shall use the terms *complete subject* and *complete predicate*.

From the following sentences select the *simple subject*, the *predicate verb*, and the *predicate complement*.

(*a*) An empty vessel makes the greatest sound.
(*b*) Every man is the architect of his own fortune.

Simple subject	*Predicate verb*	*Predicate complement*
vessel	makes	sound (*direct object*)
man	is	architect (*predicate noun*)

1. A beggar through the world am I.
2. Temperance and labor are the two best physicians of man.
3. Man became a living soul.
4. Sunshine steals light from her face.
5. A false balance is an abomination to the Lord.
6. But a just weight is his delight.
7. Nature hath framed strange fellows in her time.
8. The better part of valor is discretion.
9. The gift without the giver is bare.
10. Far through the memory shines a happy day.

The second sentence above and the three which follow here have two or more words for their subjects, predicate verbs, or predicate complements. We call these *compound subjects, compound predicates, compound complements*.

11. He thought and worked for the good of his country.
12. Have you heard Scotti and Farrar?
13. The summer cottages are theirs and ours.
14. Jason felt that he could never forgive himself.
15. The young man knelt down and prayed.
16. The river is very rough.

17. The passage did not seem safe.
18. Beside him stood an old woman.
19. Upon first one person and then another Jason stared.
20. What will the king say?
21. The king turned angrily and fixed his eyes upon Jason.
22. Beowulf came upon the head of the lost warrior.
23. Horror filled the minds of his men.
24. Here a mountain stream dashes out of sight and flows underground.
25. I will reward thee with money and ancient treasure.
26. Quickly he mounted his steed and went forth with Beowulf.
27. With her horrid claws the monster seized the warrior.
28. She could not pierce his coat of mail.
29. Her flight was swift.
30. Beowulf severed the heads of Grendel and the monster.
31. The frost is here.
32. The woods are sear.
33. The fire burns clear.
34. He was very sure of that.
35. This was extremely pleasing to the leader.
36. Robin Hood's band soon scattered through the forest.
37. Will Scarlet shall be his name.
38. The flowers were fresh and gay.
39. Who can draw a good bow and kill a fine buck?
40. Robin Hood was well pleased with the answer of Will Scarlet.

LESSON 8

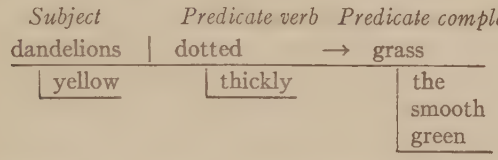
WORD MODIFIERS

Everything we say or write is in sentences; and a sentence is nothing more than a subject, a predicate verb, and a predicate complement, together with the words, phrases, and clauses which may be attached to each of these three, to modify the meaning that the bare word would have.

Yellow dandelions thickly dotted the smooth green grass.

Subject	*Predicate verb*	*Predicate complement*
dandelions	dotted	grass
yellow	thickly	the
		smooth
		green

The modifiers of the subject, predicate verb, and predicate complement are written below them. A simple diagram may be used to show this grouping of the modifiers with the words which they naturally accompany.



In like manner, select the principal elements in the forty sentences in Lesson 7, and then group with each element the modifiers which accompany it. At first, do this orally. Then, write your analysis of the sentence, in the form of a diagram something like the one shown above. If the complement is a predicate noun, pronoun, or adjective, let the arrow point toward the subject, to suggest their relation to each other.

Teaching Direction. — *Use diagrams as a kind of shorthand way of writing out the analysis of the sentence. Do not let the diagram supplant oral analysis. It is only a supplement to that. Regard diagrams as devices to show at a single glance the relation of the parts of the sentence to each other. They save the time of pupils in writing analyses, and also the time of the teacher in reading their papers. Diagrams and graphs are used in all the sciences — physics, geography, psychology, and education. Why deny the teacher of the science of language the use of this valuable device?*

LESSON 9

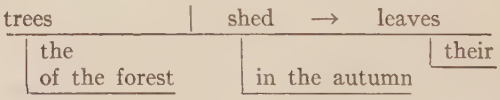
PHRASE MODIFIERS

Some groups of words without a subject and predicate perform the same function that a single word modifier performs. These are called *phrases.*

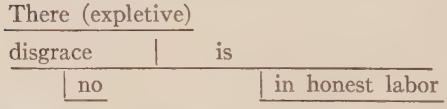
A phrase that modifies the subject, predicate noun, or object, acts just like a single adejctive, and hence is called an *adjective phrase.* One that modifies the predicate verb acts like an adverb, and hence is called an *adverbial phrase.*

In the autumn the trees of the forest shed their leaves.

The group of words, *in the autumn*, goes with *shed*, just as the single adverb, *then*, might. *The trees then shed their leaves. Of the forest* is used to modify *trees*. The adjective *forest* alone would serve if we wished to shorten the sentence. *The forest trees then shed their leaves.*



There is no disgrace in honest labor



In a similar way, either orally or in written diagrams, analyze the following sentences. Indicate whether the phrase is adjective or adverbial.

1. In the best books great men talk to us.
2. Behind the clouds the sun is shining in its splendor.
3. They found no trace of the culprit in the snow.
4. I met your cousin at the beach yesterday.

5. The river was the charm of that enchanted ground.
6. Out of this nettle, danger, we pluck this flower, safety.
7. Honor is the subject of my story.
8. I heard this interesting story in England.
9. One star differeth from another star in glory.
10. After the president, came the members of his cabinet.
11. Trees of the forest and birds of the air have their part in the work of the world.
12. Into the valley of death rode the six hundred.
13. He smote fiercely with his mighty weapon.
14. Then they went on their way toward the meeting-place.
15. Twenty tall yeomen will draw at his word.
16. He had laughed on the lass with his bonny black eye.
17. The Baron of Ravensworth prances in pride.
18. He views his domain upon Arkindale side.
19. Then another locust went in and carried away another grain of corn.
20. He stored it carefully in a strong granary.
21. This is not the month of strawberries.
22. Green leaves grew on the trees.

Construction of Sentences. — Construct six sentences of your own, each having a phrase modifier in some one of the four modifying relations shown in these sentences.

LESSON 10

CLAUSE MODIFIERS

A clause is a group of words having a subject and predicate, but acting as a single element or as a modifier in a sentence. A modifying clause acts in the same way as a single modifying adjective or adverb, just as a phrase does.

These sparrows, which gather in flocks when the evenings become cool, act like migratory birds as they flutter about.

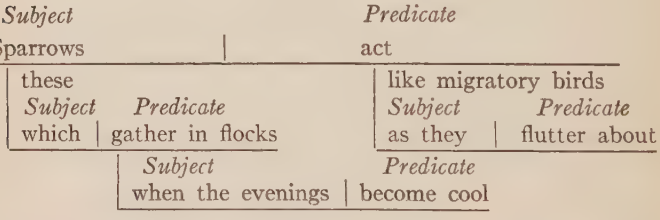
Subject part	*Predicate part*
These sparrows	act like migratory birds
which gather in flocks	as they flutter about
when the evenings become cool	

Notice that each of the three modifying word-groups contains a subject and predicate.

	Subject	*Predicate*
1.	which	gather in flocks
2.	the evenings	are cool (when)
3.	they	flutter about (as)

The first clause modifies the subject, *sparrows*, and is just as much an adjective modifier as the word *these*. The second modifies *gather*, and is an adverb. The third modifies *act*, and is an adverb

A diagram of the sentence follows:



Besides the clauses, there are two phrases in the sentence. Are they adjective or adverbial? Point out the word modifiers. Are these adjectives or adverbs?

Select the clause modifiers from the sentences below, and decide which are adjective, and which are adverb. Give the reasons for your decision.

1. The educated men who lived among them had been trained in the Roman schools.
2. Practical men take these steps because competition has proved itself an enemy to commercial welfare.

3. Music when soft voices die vibrates in the memory.
4. Fools rush in where angels fear to tread.
5. The ornament of a house is the friend who visits it.
6. The wicked flee when no man pursueth.
7. The tender grace of a day that is dead will never come back to me.
8. When industry goes out of the door, poverty comes in at the window.
9. We may see the great Achilles, whom we knew.
10. They beheld a broad, blue lake, which filled the great valley.
11. Whenever a traveler paused under the trees, he heard a pleasant whisper of leaves above his head.
12. Then he lay down in the shade of a plane tree, while the water sang him to sleep.
13. When he awoke, the shepherds begged him to stay.
14. When the thunder rumbles about the summit, they think it is the voice of Atlas.
15. Gluck had charge of the turnspit when there was anything to roast.
16. The Black Brothers had heaps of gold, which lay about on the floor.
17. A fisherman had seen Proserpina's footprints in the sand as he went along the beach.
18. When they saw Ceres, they sat down on the crest of a wave.
19. We rode along the bottom until the valley became very shallow.
20. We had traveled only a short distance when we saw a herd of buffalo.

Construction of Sentences. — Construct a sentence with a clause modifying the simple subject, one with a clause modifying the predicate verb, one with a clause modifying the predicate noun or pronoun, and another with a clause modifying the object complement.

Punctuation. — 1. When an adverbial clause precedes the subject, it is set off from the part which follows by the use of a comma. Notice this in the sentences numbered 8, 11, 13, 14, and 18.

Whenever you write such a sentence, do not fail to insert the comma. To one who knows how to write correctly a mistake in punctuation is as glaring as a misspelled word.

2. Any *clause* that merely adds an interesting piece of information, without changing the meaning of the sentence from what it would have said without the clause, is called a *nonrestrictive clause*. Such clauses are regularly set off by commas, no matter where they occur in the sentence. Observe sentences 9, 10, and 16.

But observe also that the clauses in sentences 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 12, 15, 17, 19, and 20 are not set off. The meanings of the sentences would be changed if the clauses were omitted. These clauses restrict, or limit, the meaning of the sentence, by indicating the time or place or condition of the action, or by pointing out some definite person or place or thing. They are called *restrictive clauses* and are never set off by commas.

Teaching Direction. — *From this time forth, frequently call the attention of the pupils to these two customs of punctuation in any of their books. Sometimes authors and editors are not themselves accurate in punctuation. See if you can find mistakes in the punctuation in the textbooks. Do this often, until your pupils become conscious of punctuation and would notice inaccurate punctuation just as readily as they would inaccurate spelling.*

By all means insist in every written lesson upon the constant use of such punctuation as has been taught. This is the only way to make correct punctuation finally become an unconscious habit. Your pupils will never be comfortable and happy in the society of commas and semicolons until they know them as familiar friends, and as regularly write these marks in their sentences as they would insert all the letters in a word — and do this, too, without having to stop and think it out.

LESSON 11

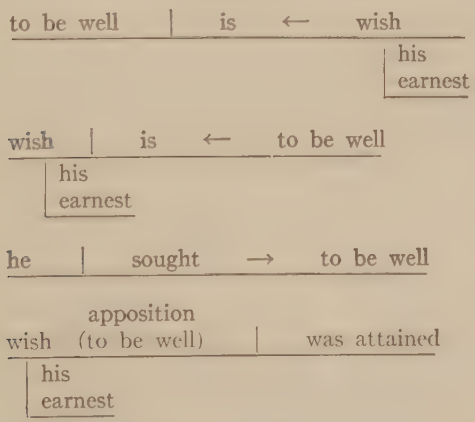
PHRASES IN APPOSITION, AND AS SUBJECTS AND PREDICATE COMPLEMENTS

In the following sentences phrases are used as *subjects*, as *predicate complements*, and in *apposition* with some other noun or pronoun.

1. *To be well* is his earnest wish.
2. His earnest wish is *to be well*.
3. He sought *to be well*.
4. His earnest wish, *to be well*, was attained.

In the first sentence the phrase, *to be well*, is the *subject;* in the second it is the *predicate noun;* in the third, the *direct object;* and in the fourth it is in *apposition* with the subject. In each case the phrase is equivalent to the one word *health.*

Analysis



State the use of the phrase in italics in each of these sentences.

1. *To ignore ridicule* is almost impossible.
2. *To help others* is *to help one's self.*
3. *Mending broken china* was his occupation.
4. His occupation, *mending broken china,* was not profitable that year.
5. Harper learned *to play the flute.*
6. After that, *playing his flute* was his greatest pleasure.
7. *To learn to be content* is *to make sure of permanent happiness.*
8. His occupation was *mending broken china.*
9. *To regret a generous act* is an unpardonable folly.
10. The ambassador sought *to meet the king.*

Construction of Sentences. — Construct four original sentences, with a phrase in each of these four offices.

Sentence Analysis. — Analyze in full, orally or in a written diagram, such of the sentences in this lesson as the teacher may assign for analysis.

Punctuation. — A word, phrase, or clause in apposition is set off by commas. See sentence 4 as an example.

The parts of a series of three or more words, phrases, or clauses are separated by commas.

The two preceding sentences are correctly punctuated. The comma is used between the last two members of the series before the conjunction. This is a new practice in punctuation, but it is observed by most careful writers and printers.

LESSON 12

CLAUSES IN APPOSITION, AND AS SUBJECTS AND PREDICATE COMPLEMENTS, AND AS OBJECTS

Clauses are shown in this lesson used as substantives just as phrases were used in the preceding lesson.

1. **A clause as Subject.** — *What they sought in the new country* was religious liberty.

2. **A clause as Predicate Noun.** — Their greatest desire was *that they might have liberty.*

3. **A clause as Object.** — After many hardships they obtained *what they desired.*

4. **A clause in Apposition with one of the principal sentence elements.** — Their greatest desire, *that they might have religious liberty*, was secured at the expense of physical comfort.

What is the use of each of the clauses in italics in these ten sentences?

1. I have heard *that the theatre is closed.*
2. His favorite saying was, "*It 's an ill wind that blows nobody good.*"
3. I do not know *how long they will be gone.*
4. My belief is *that he is innocent.*
5. *That he is innocent* was clearly proved.
6. The statement, *that all had escaped unharmed*, was found to be true.
7. He said *that he would go.*
8. *That he will go* is almost certain.
9. My belief is *that he will go.*
10. His decision, *that he would go to-morrow*, will be adhered to.

Sentence Analysis. — Analyze orally or in a written diagram the four of these sentences which the teacher may designate.

Construction of Sentences. — Write four sentences of your own to show four noun uses of clauses.

Punctuation. — Remember in your own writing always to use commas to set off words, phrases, and clauses *in apposition*, as in sentences 6 and 10.

LESSON 13

ELLIPTICAL SENTENCES

We do not always speak in complete sentences. Sometimes what we would say to make a complete sentence is so well understood by both speaker and hearer that to say it all would be not only unnecessary, but awkward.

He is taller than she (is tall).
Who is there? I (am here).
Where do you go next? To Omaha. (I shall go to Omaha.)
Whose samples are those? Brown and Reed's. (These are Brown and Reed's samples.)
Fred is sixteen (years old).
Go now, or (do) not (go) at all.
You did not see them? Why (did you) not (see them)?
(I) Thank you for the roses.
While (he was) running, Joe stumbled and fell.
I respect my teacher more than they (respect their teacher).
I respect my teacher more than (I respect) them.

Complete the sentences which follow by inserting the words which, for the sake of brevity and clearness, we are accustomed to omit.

1. Come to the desk, Elizabeth.
2. Read that as soon as possible.
3. Arthur reads faster than his sister.
4. Whose book? Harvey's.
5. Why such excitement?
6. Then, if ever, come perfect days.
7. Will you bring the pictures Tuesday? Yes, I will.
8. Charles jumps a foot farther than James can.
9. You know she likes you better than him.
10. You know she likes you better than he.
11. While speeding, he ran into the curb.
12. Who will try to climb higher than I?
13. Is this as good as yours? Yes.

14. Clara's new dress is prettier than Marjorie's.
15. Name three products of Louisiana. Sugar, rice, and cotton.
16. Which way shall we turn here? To the left.

Construction of Sentences. — Listen to the speech of your schoolmates, and set down five Elliptical Sentences which you hear within the day. Do not regard such expressions as faulty. They are often clearer and more emphatic than the full expression would be.

LESSON 14

COMPOUND SENTENCES

Notice the construction of these sentences:

1. Massachusetts and Virginia have opposite ideas in government.
2. The timid animal came and stood by the running stream.
3. Such work requires skill, patience, and care.
4. The timid animal came down to the water, and I took a snapshot of it.

Each of the first three sentences makes a single statement. In the first the *subject* is compound. In the second the *predicate verb* is compound. In the third the *object complement* is compound.

The fourth sentence makes two distinct statements, each containing a subject and predicate. It is a *compound sentence*. Compounding the subject, the predicate verb, or the predicate complement, or all three of them, would not make a compound sentence. There must be two or more distinct statements logically related to each other.

5. Massachusetts and Virginia represent and uphold two ideas and conceptions of government.
6. Massachusetts upholds one conception of government, and Virginia stands for another.

The fifth example is a simple sentence, even though all three of the main elements of it are compound. It makes but one statement. The sixth sentence is compound, for it makes two statements logically related to each other. Any member of a compound sentence may, of course, have modifying dependent clauses.

Punctuation. — The parts of a compound sentence are *always* separated by a *comma* or a *semicolon.* If the parts are joined by *and, but, for, either . . . or,* or *neither . . . nor,* a comma is used.

If the parts are joined by such words as *moreover, however, since, therefore, so, accordingly, besides, also, thus, then, still,* and *otherwise,* a semicolon is used.

When no connecting word joins the members of a compound sentence, a *semicolon* is used.

Teaching Direction. — *When a rule of punctuation has once been taught, insist upon its use thereafter in every bit of written work the pupil does. In order to live happily and comfortably with punctuation the student must reduce it to a* habit.

Punctuate the following sentences. The first four are correctly punctuated already. Show that they are. Are there others that are correct?

1. Now came still evening on, and twilight gray
   Had in her sober livery all things clad.
2. There lies the port; the vessel puffs her sail;
   There gloom the dark broad seas.
3. The wakeful bloodhound rose and shook his hide.
4. These reasons are clear to all; moreover, they seem sufficient.
5. Patience is a bitter plant but it has sweet fruit.
6. Night's candles are burnt out and jocund day
   Stands tiptoe on the misty mountain-tops.
7. Cease to do evil learn to do well.
8. The morn was clouded but no shower fell.

9. The evil that men do lives after them
The good is oft interred with their bones.
10. Long at the window he stood and wistfully gazed on the landscape.
11. My books and papers have been taken from the table and shelves.
12. Suddenly she lost all fear and her voice became steady and strong.
13. Every duty we omit obscures some truth we should have known.
14. Indians and white men made ready their camps and defenses.
15. Sun and wind and rain encouraged and mellowed every growing thing and these responded to their call.
16. These are the usual rules however there are some exceptions to them.
17. You may be sure you are right but you have not proved your answer yet.
18. The class had long been working at nouns and verbs.
19. The class did not understand nouns and adjectives seemed to puzzle them too.
20. He tried his best to learn to punctuate for he considered punctuation necessary.
21. Punctuation in a long sentence acts like signboards along an unfamiliar road therefore it should be learned thoroughly.
22. We practised on many sentences thus we came to understand the use of commas and semicolons.
23. Practice is necessary otherwise one forgets the rules.
24. Neither could he remember what was said nor find the rules in the book.
25. Either you must learn punctuation or you will always be in doubt about how to write correctly.
26. Mark took a thorough course in agriculture thus he became a scientific farmer.
27. This was necessary otherwise he would have failed in irrigated farming.
28. The college course assured Mark's success since he already knew the practical side of farming.
29. Punctuation marks are convenient guides moreover they are necessary for the sake of clearness.

30. Peace is something we have to fight for God does n't make us a present of it.

Construction of Sentences. — Make two compound sentences, the parts of which are properly separated by commas. Two separated by semicolons. Make three simple sentences having one or more of the principal elements compounded. Punctuate these properly.

LESSON 15

A SUMMARY OF PART I AND A REVIEW

THE SENTENCE

A sentence is an expression of a complete thought.

Subject and Predicate. — A sentence has two necessary parts, a subject and a predicate. The predicate may be a single verb, a verb phrase, or a verb or verb phrase combined with a predicate adjective, a predicate noun, or a predicate pronoun; or it may have a direct object as the complement of the verb.

Independent Elements. — Sentences may contain independent elements in addition to the subject and predicate and their adjuncts and modifiers. The independent elements in common use are:

1. Vocatives (calling words).
2. Appositives (words, phrases, or clauses in apposition).
3. Responsives (*yes* and *no*).
4. Expletives (*it* and *there*).
5. Interjections, Exclamations, Preparatory Words (*well*, *why*, etc.), and Exclamatory Nominatives.
6. Parenthetical Expressions.

7. Absolute Constructions.
8. Pleonastic Constructions.

Punctuation. — 1. A period is used at the end of a statement, a command, or a request.

2. A question mark is used after a sentence that is a question.

3. An exclamation point is used after a sentence that is an exclamation.

4. All the independent elements, except the Interjections and Exclamations and the Expletives, *it* and *there*, are set off from the other parts of the sentence by commas.

5. Compound sentences joined by one of the simple conjunctions, *and*, *but*, *for*, etc., are separated by commas.

6. Other compound sentences require a semicolon to separate the coördinate parts.

7. Nonrestrictive words, phrases, and clauses are set off by commas.

8. An adverbial clause preceding the main clause of the sentence is set off by a comma.

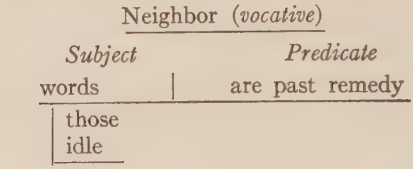
Modifiers. — The principal members of a sentence may be modified by words, phrases, and clauses. If one of these modifies a noun or pronoun, it does the work of an adjective, and is called an *adjective modifier*. If it modifies anything else, it does the work of an *adverb*, and is called an *adverbial modifier*.

Sentence Analysis. — In analyzing a sentence containing a phrase or clause used as subject, predicate complement, or in apposition, do not consider it necessary at this time to separate the phrase or clause into its parts. Regard each one as a unit.

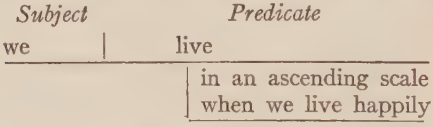
Write out the omitted parts of elliptical sentences before analyzing them.

Analyze these sentences, in a manner similar to that shown below.

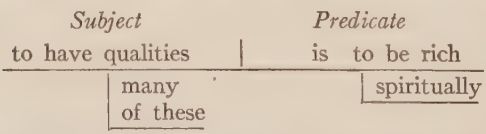
1. Those idle words, neighbor, are past remedy.



2. We live in an ascending scale when we live happily.



3. To have many of these qualities is to be spiritually rich.



4. There is always a new horizon for the onward-looking man.
5. Desire and curiosity are the two eyes through which a man sees the world in the most enchanted colors.
6. We may study forever, and we are never as learned as we would.
7. We have never made a statue worthy of our dreams.

NOTE. — The students who may wish to read the whole essay from which the first seven sentences are taken will find it to be Stevenson's "El Dorado."

8. The President sent a special message to Congress.
9. Above us the clouds were a brilliant golden color.
10. The flyer and his companion drove their machine across the country.

11. Why delay longer?
12. Fanny is seventeen, and has completed her high-school course.
13. This man, the drill sergeant of the company, belongs to the regular army.
14. What they wanted was authority and means.
15. The county and city obtained what they wanted.
16. The city demanded and secured the protection it needed.
17. Do you not like this magazine better than that?
18. Whose book have you, Clara?
19. These pears, I understand, came from Colorado.
20. What we want is a better understanding of the principles of this subject.

Teaching Direction. — *Young people should come to know the structure of both colloquial and literary language. Of the two, colloquial is the more important. For this reason both are represented in the sentences in this book. Give your pupils to understand that* colloquial *English is* good *English — just as good in its place as literary English is in its.*

PART II

THE PARTS OF SPEECH AND THEIR INFLECTIONS AND FUNCTIONS

LESSON 1

There are just eight kinds of words to be used in speaking and writing. If one should talk steadily for a month and use all the words in the dictionary, he would use only these eight kinds. They are the *parts of speech*, the *pieces* out of which speech is constructed. These Parts of Speech are: **Nouns, Pronouns, Adjectives, Verbs, Adverbs, Prepositions, Conjunctions,** and **Interjections.**

It is not very important to know a faultless *definition* of each of these; but it is helpful to one who wishes to speak and write accurately and easily to be able *to recognize* each part of speech readily.

1. **Nouns** are names.

chair, Paris, war, Emerson, radiator, paper, light, cleverness, sweetness, herd, Mary, etc.

2. **Pronouns** are words used to take the place of nouns when we do not wish to continue repeating the naming word.

she, it, they, who, etc.

3. **Adjectives** are words which accompany nouns or pronouns and modify or limit their meanings.

white, sweet, this, a, cold, etc.

4. **Verbs** are words whose business it is to make the predication in sentences. To say it in another way, verbs assert or ask.

read, run, call, burn, etc.

5. **Adverbs,** like adjectives, are modifying words. They accompany, not nouns and pronouns, but verbs, adjectives, other adverbs, and sometimes even prepositions.

perfectly, slowly, truly, evenly, etc.

6. **Prepositions.** About twenty-five words in common use, like *in*, *on*, *down*, *over*, *under*, *through*, etc., are used to cause a noun or pronoun to modify another word. These are prepositions. They bridge the gap between the noun or pronoun and the word which one wishes to have modified, and so make an *adjective-phrase* or *adverbial-phrase* modifier instead of a single-word modifier.

You cannot say, "Frank Corson built his house the hill." You are trying to modify the word *built* by the word *hill* in such a way as to show *where*. You may say, "Frank Corson built his house *on* the hill." *On* is the bridging word, the preposition, used to attach *hill* to *built*, as an adverbial modifier.

7. **Conjunctions** are words used to connect words, phrases, or clauses with each other, or to cause a subordinate clause to modify something in a main clause.

and, but, that, whenever, wherever, etc.

8. **Interjections** are exclamatory words.

alas, oh, etc.

They do not combine with the other words in the sentence; they are always outside the structure of the sentence, and

may, if strictly considered, be denied a place in the family of words that are really parts of our speech.

RECOGNIZING THE PARTS OF SPEECH

Thus with the year
Seasons return, but not to me returns
Day, or the sweet approach of even or morn,
Or sight of vernal bloom, or summer's rose,
Or flocks, or herds, or human face divine.

In these four and a half lines of Milton's poetry there are thirty-six words. They are:

Nouns	*Pronouns*	*Adjectives*	*Verbs*
year	me	the	return
seasons		the	returns
day		sweet	
approach		vernal	
even		human	
morn		divine	
sight			
bloom			
summer's			
rose			
flocks			
herds			
face			

Adverbs	*Prepositions*	*Conjunctions*	*Interjections*
Thus	with	but	(No interjections
not	to	or	are used)
	of	or	
	of	or	
		or	
		or	
		or	
		or	

What part of speech is each word in the following sentences?

1. And, oh, grant divine contentment to me now.
2. Who are your best friends?

3. This brown canvas tent was set under a great spruce tree.
4. Generosity was always a prominent quality of his.
5. Under this sheltering roof they came no more.
6. Alas! the darkness of despair and grief descends upon him while he is looking patiently for a ray of hope.
7. Red candles and holly are very appropriate for Christmas.
8. When we hesitate, we betray our doubt of the answer.
9. I saw a host of golden daffodils.
10. They flash upon the inward eye,
    Which is the bliss of solitude.

LESSON 2

NOUNS

Select the words from the following sentence that name persons or things.

At this moment he felt somebody pull his elbow, and to his great relief he heard the friendly voice and saw the good-natured face of his cousin Ben.

The nouns are: *moment*, *somebody*, *elbow*, *relief*, *voice*, *face*, *cousin*, and *Ben*.

Names that belong to some individual person, place, or thing begin with a capital letter when written. One may call about half the members of any school by the name *boy*, but perhaps only one in the room by the name *Ben*.

From the following paragraph write the nouns in a column, making sure to begin all the proper (individual) names with capital letters.

Into the midst of all this riot and turmoil another writer was born in London, who years afterward was to become the author of another wonderful book, "Robinson Crusoe." His father was a butcher named Foe, a good man, who knew that his son had talent, and who wanted him to become a preacher — a Puritan or dissenting preacher, like Bunyan, for the Foe family were dissenters. So the boy Daniel was sent to school for some five years or more. But he had no notion of becoming a preacher. Perhaps

he thought the life of a dissenting preacher under such conditions was too hard.

Select from this list of names all that should begin with capital letters and write them in a column.

man, arthur, chair, grade, paris, captain, andrews, mark, teacher, denver, katy, blacksmith, portland, wisconsin, american, carpenter, baker, judge baker, ben, florida, alice, berlin, mars, desert, mexico.

Write a list of ten nouns that should begin with capital letters and ten that should not.

Teaching Direction. — *Since the old classifications of nouns into* common *and* proper, collective, abstract, *and* verbal *do not function in the process of learning to write and speak, except in two or three minor ways, it seems best not to make detached lessons of meaningless machinery. When we say that each individual name begins with a capital letter, we have given all the* useful *information there is about common and proper nouns.*

The agreement of the collective noun with its verb will be shown in Part III. The uses of verbals (*infinitives, participles, and gerunds*) *will be shown in connection with the verb, instead of being exhibited in part here (the noun-uses), and the other uses elsewhere. This disposes of quite a bit of grammatical lumber — all the useless classification of the nouns.*

The next lessons will take up the spelling of plurals, and possessives, and our gender nouns, and the -ess *suffix to indicate feminine gender. That is all there is left of the properties of nouns — person, number, gender, and case.*

LESSON 3

PLURAL FORMS OF NOUNS

1. The commonest way to cause an English noun to mean more than one thing is to add *-s* or *-es* to it. *Boy, boys; girl, girls; table, tables; spoon, spoons; church, churches.*

If the *–s* sound adds a syllable as you speak the word, *–es* is used. *Box* (one syllable), *boxes* (two syllables); *dish, dishes; brush, brushes.*

There are other ways of forming plurals of English nouns, each applying to a number of words.

2. Words ending in *y* preceded by a consonant usually change the *y* to *i* and add *–es*. *City, cities; lady, ladies; baby, babies; party, parties.*

3. Most words ending in *–f, fe,* or *–ffe* change the *f* to *v* and add *–es*. *Knife, knives; wife, wives; leaf, leaves.*

But notice that we use: *cliff, cliffs; staff, staffs*[1]*; roof, roofs;* and some others.

4. Nouns ending in *o* usually add only *s*, but a few words add *es*. These words are: *echo, hero, negro, no, potato, tomato, tornado, torpedo,* and possibly two or three others.

The following words are spelled both ways, but *oes* is preferred: *calico, cargo, domino, flamingo, volcano, bravado, motto, buffalo, mulatto,* and *grotto.*

5. A few old words have a remnant of a plural in *–en.* Once *eyen* or *eyne* was the plural for *eye; housen* for *house,* etc. But now the words *ox, oxen,* and *brother, brethren,* are all that are left of the pure *en* plural. *Children* is an *en* plural added to what was already an old *er* plural, *childer.*

6. Other nouns that are old in the language change the main vowel to form plurals: *tooth, teeth; foot, feet; man, men; woman, women; mouse, mice;* and several more.

7. Some nouns which have come into the English language from a foreign language retain the foreign plurals; but the tendency is for the word to take the usual *s* or *es* plural as soon as it becomes a very familiar word in common use in

[1] *Staves* is also a recognized plural of *staff.* See note Number 9 below.

English: *alumnus, alumni; beau, beaux; phenomenon, phenomena.*

8. A few nouns have but one form for both singular and plural: *deer, trout, sheep,* etc.

9. A small group of nouns have two plurals, one meaning one thing and the other another. *Brothers, brethren; dies, dice; staffs, staves.*

10. Compound words, like *brother-in-law,* add the plural ending to the more important noun part of the word, *brothers-in-law;* but words like *spoonful,* not hyphenated, simply add *s.*

11. Letters, figures, and signs, when used as nouns, add the apostrophe and *s* to form the plural: the table of *7's,* your *a's,* these *H's.*

Teaching Direction. — *After going over with your pupils the various ways of making noun plurals, use as a written* spelling *lesson the exercise which follows. Pronounce the word, and have the pupils write first the singular and then the plural form. All this matter of plurals is* spelling, *and should be taught as a series of spelling lessons.*

1. brush
2. lady
3. knife
4. ring
5. ox
6. foot
7. man
8. shelf
9. echo
10. box
11. Mary
12. staff
13. face
14. rifle
15. attorney
16. solo
17. church
18. fox
19. mercy
20. quail
21. map
22. child
23. city
24. tooth
25. potato
26. fancy
27. John
28. contract
29. woman
30. box
31. attorney-at-law
32. phenomenon
33. Jones
34. wasp
35. thief
36. cup
37. sheep
38. mouse
39. key
40. brother
41. piano
42. paper
43. hiss
44. sister-in-law
45. Henry
46. bean
47. half
48. alumnus
49. valley
50. tomato

LESSON 4

POSSESSIVE FORMS OF NOUNS

In the sentences shown below there are nouns used like adjectives to modify the meaning of other nouns.

The wing was broken.

This sentence states in a general way that *a* wing was broken. But when I say, *The left wing was broken*, I have modified (changed) the statement by specifying which wing. I used an adjective to modify your notion of *wing*. I can also modify the idea *wing* by using the adjective form of a noun. The adjective form of a noun denotes possession or ownership, and is, therefore, called the *Possessive* form.

The bird's wing was broken.
The bird's left wing was broken.

These possessive forms of nouns may take adjective modifiers just the same as the common form of the nouns.

The wild duck's left wing was broken.

In speaking we have no difficulty in choosing the correct possessive forms of nouns; but we have to learn to *spell* them so as to be able to write them correctly. They are formed as follows:

1. Possessive forms of nouns meaning but one thing (singular nouns) are formed by adding the apostrophe and *s* (*'s*).

This man's name. That girl's dress.
The robin's feathers. The child's books.

2. Possessives of the plural nouns, whose plurals are regularly formed by adding *s*, are made by adding only the apostrophe.

The boys' hats. The horses' manes.
The captains' uniforms. Twenty hens' broods.

3. A few nouns ending in a hissing sound (a sibilant), and followed by a word beginning with another sibilant, would be very unpleasant to the ear if another *s* sound were added. On this account an exception is made to the rule for singular possessives, and they are written with the apostrophe only.

For conscience' sake. The princess' silver shoe-buckles.

These cases are rare. Careful writers nearly always follow the regular custom of using the *'s*. The unpleasant sibilant combination can sometimes be avoided by changing the order of the words in the sentence and by using a phrase beginning with *of* instead of the possessive form of the noun.

The silver buckles of the princess's slippers. The silver buckles of the slippers of the princess. For the sake of conscience.

4. Nouns whose plurals are not formed by adding *s* to the singular, form their possessives just as singular nouns do. They add the apostrophe and *s* (*'s*).

men, men's; geese, geese's; women, women's; mice, mice's.

Three additional observations about possessives:

1. The possessive forms are not often used except to denote ownership. You may say, *the lady's cloak*, and *the driver's gloves*, but not *the house's roof*, or *the eggs' price*. The customary form in such cases as the last two is to say, *the roof of the house*, and *the price of the eggs*.

2. One may indicate *ownership*, however, by either the possessive form or the prepositional phrase with *of*.

The lady's cloak, *or* the cloak of the lady.
The driver's gloves, *or* the gloves of the driver.

3. We do not use the *'s* with pronouns. We do not write *her's* or *their's* or *it's*. Frequently we write *it's* as a contraction of *it is*, but never to denote possession.

Teaching Direction. — *The possessive forms of nouns should be taught as a* spelling *lesson. Pronounce the following words and have your pupils write them in the four forms:* (1) *singular,* (2) *singular possessive,* (3) *plural, and* (4) *plural possessive.*

Example. — 1. child, 2. child's, 3. children, 4. children's.

1. man	9. mouse	17. sheep
2. woman	10. pupil	18. hero
3. boy	11. fish	19. judge
4. girl	12. brother	20. lady
5. soldier	13. sister	21. gentleman
6. horse	14. cousin	22. knife
7. cat	15. aunt	23. goose
8. dog	16. deer	24. owner

LESSON 5

GENDER FORMS OF NOUNS

A number of the modern languages have endings for nouns, pronouns, and even adjectives, to indicate whether the person or thing named is male or female. Only a few English nouns show the gender (the sex) of the thing named. In other languages gender does not always indicate sex, but in English it does. For example:

man	is	masculine gender	(male)
woman	is	feminine gender	(female)
prince	is	masculine gender	(male)
princess	is	feminine gender	(female)

Where gender is indicated in English nouns, entirely different words are used for male and female (masculine and feminine gender).

boy	girl	king	queen
cock	hen	bachelor	maid
gander	goose	horse	mare
drake	duck	buck	doe
bull	cow	male	female
boar	sow	father	mother
man	woman	husband	wife
son	daughter	beau	belle

The ending *-ess* is used in English with the masculine form of a few words to indicate feminine gender. This is the *only* feminine ending, except one, for English nouns.

prince	princess	duke	duchess
lion	lioness	actor	actress
waiter	waitress	hunter	huntress
master	mistress	tiger	tigress
emperor	empress	count	countess

Exception. — *Hero* has the word *heroine* for the feminine, as if *-ine* were a feminine ending.

Teaching Direction. — *Gender applies to so few English nouns that it would not be worth while to teach it if it were not for the agreement of the personal pronoun with its noun antecedent in gender. Of course, there are no neuter forms for nouns; but nouns without gender are referred to by the neuter singular pronoun* it. *When your pupils are analyzing or parsing, do not have them speak of the gender of nouns unless the form of the word actually indicates sex.*

Assignment. — Do not use these nouns in sentences, but use appropriate gender forms of *pronouns* instead:

1. queen [1]	8. master	15. emperor
2. brother-in-law	9. Margaret	16. Mr. Wilson
3. shepherd	10. boat	17. glowworm
4. niece	11. moon	18. book
5. maidservant	12. squaw	19. tiger
6. student	13. child	20. Tennyson
7. lad	14. hen	21. King George

[1] **Example:** Her daughters are called princesses.

LESSON 6

PRONOUNS

The English language has a set of words which are used mainly to avoid the awkward repetition of the noun. These are called *pronouns*. If we were willing to say,

> The young girl left the young girl's old hat at home and went to the milliner's to buy the young girl a new bonnet to go with the young girl's Easter frock,

we should not need to use pronouns at all. But notice how much less awkward the same sentence is when we avoid repeating the noun and adjective:

> The young girl left *her* old hat at home and went to the milliner's to buy *herself* a new bonnet to go with *her* Easter frock.

PERSONAL PRONOUNS

Five pronouns show by their form whether they refer to the *person speaking*, the *person* or *thing spoken to*, or the *person* or *thing spoken of*. These five — *I*, *you* (*thou*), *he*, *she*, and *it* — are for this reason called personal pronouns.

Like the nouns, they have different forms for their different uses in the sentence. That is, they are inflected (bent about) to make them fit into their places.

These pronouns are so inflected as to show *person*, *number*, *gender*, and *case*. Below, in the form of a tabulation, you will see all the forms of all the five personal pronouns. The word *thou* was formerly the pronoun used to refer to the *person spoken to;* but now we use *you*, except in prayers and other forms of solemn speech.

	First Person	Second Person	Third Person		
	Singular Number	Singular Number	Singular Number		
Nominative Case	*I*	*you* (*thou*)	*he*	*she*	*it*
Possessive Case	*my* or *mine*	*your* or *yours* (*thy* or *thine*)	*his*	*her* or *hers*	*its*
Objective Case	*me*	*you* (*thee*)	*him*	*her*	*it*
	Plural Number	Plural Number	Plural Number		
Nominative	*we*	*you* (*ye*)	*they*		
Possessive	*our* or *ours*	*your* or *yours*	*their* or *theirs*		
Objective	*us*	*you*	*them*		

You will observe the following things about the forms and uses of these personal pronouns.

1. There are only twenty-eight *different* forms, and only twenty-three of these are in common use.

2. The solemn style of the second person is not frequently used.

3. The singular forms of the second person are the same as the plural. In fact, we have just within recent times grown into the habit of using these plural forms instead of the old solemn singular forms *thou*, *thy*, *thine*, and *thee*. We still feel that *you* is plural even when it refers to only one person. We say: Mary, *you* were late this morning. Regularly we use a plural verb with *you*. We should never say: *you was*.

4. Most of the personal pronouns have two forms for the possessive case. The first of these forms — for example, *my* — is used when the pronoun precedes its noun as an adjective modifier. *This is my book*. The second form — for example, *mine* — is used as a predicate pronoun following the verb. *This book is mine*, or after a preposition: *This book is one of mine*.

5. *He* and *it* do not have these two possessive forms. One form serves both the purposes mentioned in 4.

6. Only the pronouns representing the third person have forms for gender, and these have them only in the singular number.

7. Nouns have only two forms to indicate sex, the *masculine* and *feminine*. The third personal pronoun in the singular number has another gender form, the *neuter it*. This word refers to nouns which have no sex. The word *it* is the only neuter gender word in the English language.

LESSON 7

THE GENDER OF NOUNS AND PRONOUNS

1. We learn gender so as to know what form of the pronouns to use in referring to nouns. We say:

The lady planned *her* own dinner.
The man brought *his* own typewriter.
The oak drops *its* leaves in the fall.

2. A few nouns are at times personified, and so are regarded as masculine or feminine.

The sun set in all *his* splendor.
The pale moon showed *her* broad disk.
The Majestic (steamship) came into *her* dock.

3. We use the masculine form of the pronoun, never the plural *their*, to refer to nouns representing both male and female.

Each one should do *his* best.
Every citizen is expected to do *his* duty.

4. We occasionally use masculine pronouns, without reference to sex, to refer to large animals notable for strength.

The bear broke *his* way through the bushes.

5. A small animal usually is referred to as *it*.

6. Sometimes animals notable for such qualities as delicacy, gentleness, and grace, are thought of as feminine.

The mouse has laid up *her* store for the winter.

7. A small child is frequently referred to as *it*, but this use is never acceptable to the child's parents.

Teaching Direction. — *Have the pupils construct sentences using each one of the twenty-eight personal pronoun forms in its appropriate place, and have them say also which form is used in each sentence. This may be an oral exercise.*

You will observe in the sentences used as illustrations below that the pronoun agrees with its antecedent (the noun which means the same thing) in *number* and *gender*.

1. *Mary* forgot *her* book.
2. The *girls* forgot *their* books.
3. The oak *tree* drops *its* leaves.
4. The *man* has *his* overcoat.

In the first the noun *Mary* is singular number and feminine gender. So is the pronoun *her*.

Test each of the other nouns for number and gender and see if the pronoun and antecedent agree in each case.

LESSON 8

THE CASE FORMS OF PERSONAL PRONOUNS

The personal pronouns have distinct forms to be used in certain relations in sentences. The *nominative forms* are used mainly as *subjects*, or as *predicate pronouns*. The possessive forms are used as adjective modifiers of nouns, or as predicate adjectives. This is *his* book. This book is *his*. The objective forms are used mainly as objects

of verbs, as indirect objects of verbs, and as objects of prepositions.

Written Lesson. — Use each one of the twenty-three common pronoun forms in a sentence, either as subject, predicate pronoun, predicate adjective, object of a verb, indirect object, or object of a preposition, or as an adjective modifier. Make twenty-three sentences in all.

Teaching Direction. — *The teacher may show the class how to use the solemn forms in sentences. Call attention to the special forms of the verbs which accompany these forms.*

INTENSIVE AND REFLEXIVE PRONOUN FORMS

The syllables *self* (singular) and *selves* (plural) are added to a few of the personal pronoun forms, either to increase emphasis or to show the action as reflecting upon the subject.

Intensive Use:

I *myself* saw it there.
George *himself* did the work.

Reflexive Use:

They only injure *themselves* by doing so.
He serves *himself* when he serves his country.

THE FUNCTION OF THESE IN SPEECH AND WRITING

The common mistakes made in the use of these forms are two:

1. Many people think that the use of the pronoun *I* is egotistic, and so they substitute the intensive *myself* for *I*. Alice and *myself* will bring sandwiches. This is not good usage. Egotism is shown by one's manner more than by one's words. *I* is a perfectly good word. *Myself* only serves to emphasize the importance of the speaker.

2. Some uncultured people assume that *hisself* and *their-*

selves may be used in the same way as *myself*, *herself*, and *itself*, either as intensives or reflexives. The correct forms are *himself* and *themselves*.

EXERCISES

Select the proper case form for each of these sentences.

(Use *I* or *me*)

Group I

1. Who will go? ——.
2. He is taller than ——.
3. She knew it to be ——.[1]
4. He is not so old as ——.
5. Wait for Helen and ——.
6. She knew that it was ——.
7. You and —— will go together.
8. May Annie and —— go home?
9. If you were ——, should you go?
10. Jessie gave Roy and —— some new books.
11. Father expects you or —— to meet him.

(Use *we* or *us*)

Group II

1. Our parents are wiser than ——.
2. The Browns as well as ——, are invited.
3. It isn't for such as —— to decide that matter.
4. That is a secret among —— girls.
5. It was —— whom you saw.
6. He inquired whether —— girls were going to the party.
7. He knew it to be ——.
8. He knew that it was ——.
9. She is no better than ——.
10. Is it like —— to do such a thing?

[1] The proper form here is *me;* for the verb *to be* takes the same case after it as before it. The pronoun *it* is here in the objective case, subject of the infinitive *to be*. The pronoun which follows *to be* should accordingly be in the objective case.

(Use *he* or *him*)

Group III

1. I knew that it was ——.
2. I knew it to be ——.
3. Was it —— you saw?
4. It must have been ——.
5. If I were ——, I should not do that.
6. Whom can I trust, if not ——?
7. Let —— who can, answer this question.
8. What can you expect from such as ——?
9. You should be ashamed to do no better than ——.
10. —— that overcometh will I make a pillar in the temple.

(Use *she* or *her*)

Group IV

1. When will you and —— come again?
2. Father told you and —— to stay here.
3. With Edith and —— I have no trouble.
4. Few girls play as well as ——.
5. Few girls play better than ——.
6. I know no one quite like ——.
7. I suppose that the exquisite player is ——.
8. I supposed the accomplished pianist to be ——.
9. No one danced better than ——.
10. What was the trouble between you and ——?

(Use *they* or *them*)

Group V

1. I am sure it was ——.
2. It must have been ——.
3. I took it to be ——.
4. —— who fail to-day must stay after school.
5. —— who fail I will keep after school to-day.
6. Let none touch it but —— who are clean.
7. It isn't for such as —— to dictate to us.
8. Their opponents were heavier than ——.
9. It could not have been ——, for —— were at home.
10. None are so blind as —— that will not see.

(Use *who* or *whom*)

Group VI

1. I do not know —— will finish this work.
2. I do not know —— he has met.
3. —— do you think I am?
4. —— do you take me to be?
5. I do not know —— to send.
6. —— did you say sits near you?
7. —— were you speaking about?
8. —— do you think will be elected?
9. —— do you expect to call upon next?
10. She is a girl —— I know to be trustworthy.
11. We like to be with those —— we love, and —— we know love us, let them be —— they may.

LESSON 9

PRACTISE IN THE USE OF PERSONAL PRONOUNS

There is nothing grammatically incorrect about this sentence: I and Harriet did most of the work. But politeness requires that the word representing the speaker should take the less prominent place in the sentence. If you are confessing a fault, you may, however, put yourself in the prominent position: I and Charles are responsible for the damage.

We girls or *us girls*, *we boys* or *us boys*, etc. Whether to say *we* or *us girls*, *we* or *us boys*, depends upon the function of the pronoun in the sentence.

1. *We boys* belong to the Owl Patrol.
2. The Scout-Master sent *us boys* into camp.
3. *We girls* are organizing a camp fire.
4. These honor beads were all earned by *us girls*.

Notice in each case that the use of *we* or *us* depends upon the place the words fill in the sentences. In the first and third, *we* is subject. In the second, *us* is the object of *sent.* In the fourth, *us* is the object of the preposition *by.*

An easy way to settle this point is to omit the noun which follows *we* or *us.* You would not be tempted to say:

1. *Us* belong to the Owl Patrol.
2. The Scout-Master sent *we* into camp.

Choose the correct form in each sentence and give the reason for your choice.

Example. — Mother sent Clara and (*I*, *me*) on an errand before school this morning. *Me* is the correct form. It is the direct object of *sent.*

1. Nobody except you and (*I*, *me*) has come.
2. Boys who work like (*us*, *we*) will succeed.
3. Sarah and (*she*, *her*) are going together.
4. I brought these for my brother and (*I*, *me*, *myself*).
5. Are you sure the teacher meant (*he* and *I*, *him* and *me*).
6. June spells better than either you or (*I*, *me*).
7. You and (*he*, *him*) may go now.
8. (*She*, *her*) and (*they*, *them*) have all bought tickets.
9. This is (*him* and *her*, *he* and *she*).
10. Father brought both (*we* and *they*, *us* and *them*).
11. She called to John and (*we*, *us*).
12. Who is knocking at the door? It is (*I*, *me*).
13. Who is knocking at the door? It is (*we*, *us*).
14. Who is knocking at the door? It is (*he* and *she*, *him* and *her*.)
15. Are you calling Margaret and (*I*, *me*)?
16. Do you expect both (*she* and *we*, *her* and *us*) to go?
17. Everybody is going but Mark and (*she*, *her*).
18. Everybody is going but (*they*, *them*) and Mark.
19. Everybody is going except (*me* and *him*, *he* and *I*).

LESSON 10

INTERROGATIVE PRONOUNS

Three pronouns are used to ask questions. They are *who*, *which*, and *what*. These words are called Interrogative Pronouns, because the sentences in which they occur interrogate (ask questions). They do not change their form to show *person*, *number*, or *gender;* and only the first of them has case forms, — Nominative, *Who*, Possessive, *Whose*, Objective, *Whom*.

1. *Who* is that?
2. *Whose* is that?
3. *Whom* did you expect?
4. For *whom* were these intended?

The words *which* and *what* have no other forms.

THE USES OF INTERROGATIVE PRONOUNS

Who may be used only when its antecedent is a person. *Which* may be used when the antecedent is either a person or a thing. *What* refers only to things.

Who is making that noise in the basement? — *Fred*, *who* is nailing up a box. But not: *The cat*, *who* knocked some boxes over.

Which makes the more noise, Fred or the cat? — Fred does. The cat does.

What was that noise? A falling box.

WHO AND WHOM

Who, the interrogative pronoun, is always a subject. *Whom* is always the object of a verb or a preposition. A speaker must take care to select the proper form of this interrogative word. Position does not help to determine

which to use, for the interrogative is always the first word in the sentence, or near the first.

INTERROGATIVE ADJECTIVES

The words *which* and *what* are also used with nouns as *interrogative adjectives* to ask questions.

Interrogative pronoun: What was he saying?
Interrogative adjective: What story did he relate?
Interrogative pronoun: Which do you prefer?
Interrogative adjective: Which girl shall I send?

Use. — As interrogative adjectives, both *which* and *what* may refer to persons or things.

Which pupil; Which pencil; What lesson; What captain

Which is selective. *What* is more general.

Written Lesson. — Write sentences containing each of the forms of the interrogative pronouns and interrogative adjectives.

1. who
2. whose
3. whom
4. which (pronoun)
5. what (pronoun)
6. which (adjective)
7. what (adjective)

Teaching Direction. — *The only troublesome usage in connection with these words concerns* who *and* whom. *Since the same problem has to be faced in the use of the relative pronouns* who *and* whom, *the drill exercise on the words is deferred until the lesson on relative pronouns is taught. However, an oral drill upon the interrogative* who *and* whom *may well be given here.*

Some cultured people decline to insist upon the accurate use of whom *in informal oral speech. In time the word* who *may come to be recognized as the only form for both nominative and objective use, in both colloquial and literary constructions. But at present it seems best to teach both forms, and to* insist *upon the correct use of* whom *in all formal writing, at least.*

LESSON 11

RELATIVE PRONOUNS

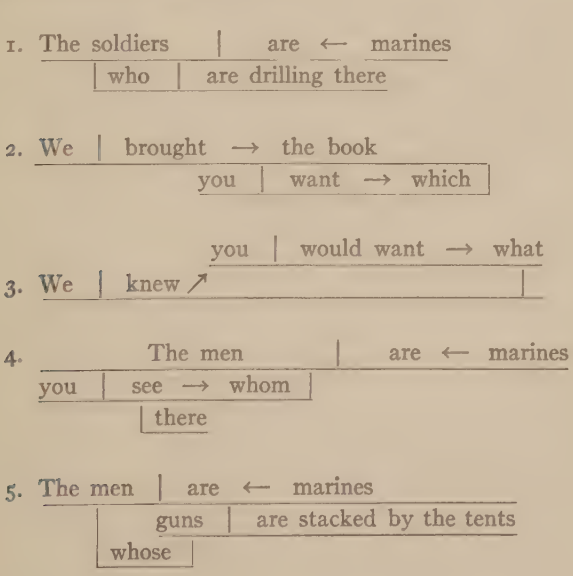
These same pronouns, *who*, *which*, and *what*, have another use besides that of asking questions. Notice these sentences.

1. The soldiers *who* are drilling there are marines.
2. We brought the tools *which* you want.
3. We knew *what* you would want.

The case forms of *who* may be used thus also.

4. The men *whom* you see there are marines.
5. The men *whose* guns are stacked by the tents are marines.

Observe in the diagrams what each of these words does for the sentence in which it occurs.


1. The soldiers | are ← marines
who | are drilling there
2. We | brought → the book
you | want → which
you | would want → what
3. We | knew ↗
4. The men | are ← marines
you | see → whom
there
5. The men | are ← marines
guns | are stacked by the tents
whose

In each of the six examples the word we are observing connects an adjective clause, of which it is a part, with its own antecedent. Such words are called *relative* (or *conjunctive*) *pronouns*. As conjunctions, they show the *relation* of the clause modifier to the antecedent of the pronoun; as pronouns, they have some place (subject, object of a verb, adjective modifier, or object of a preposition) in the subordinate clause.

They do not have forms for person, number, or gender; and only the word *who* has case forms. There is, then, no agreement between the relative pronoun and its antecedent in person, number, gender, or case. The speaker or writer needs to take no notice of these matters except to get the correct form of *who* in the *subordinate* clause.

LESSON 12

THE USES OF THE RELATIVE PRONOUNS

1. *Who* nearly always refers to persons.
2. *Which* nearly always refers to animals or things.
3. *What* always refers to animals or things.
4. *That* refers to either persons or things.

What does not have an expressed antecedent. It is equivalent to *that which* or *the thing which.*

Whom is difficult to pronounce distinctly, and one has to be watchful of one's constructions to know whether to use *who* or *whom*. For these reasons many speakers use the word *that*, which has no change of form, and may be used for persons, animals, or things. *Whom* is still used correctly in all formal writing. Most writers prefer to use the objective form *whom* to refer to persons, rather than the more general form *that*.

As used with *such* or *same* sometimes fills the place of a relative pronoun.

Examples. — We brought only *such* things *as* we had.
Ours are almost the *same as* yours.

These sentences are equivalent to the following sentences which contain the usual relative pronouns.

We brought *only those things* which we had.
Ours are almost *the same that* yours are.

Diagram the following sentences in such a way as to show clearly the double function, as *conjunction* and *pronoun*, of the relative pronoun in each.

1. All the wealth *that* he had ran in his veins.
2. I repeated the verse *which* I had formerly applied to him.
3. We admire those by *whom* great enterprises are undertaken.
4. You must admire a man *whose* life is balanced.
5. These are the girls *who* dramatized "The Pilgrim's Winter."
6. Do you remember *whom* you have met before?

COMPOUND RELATIVE PRONOUNS

Who and *what* are compounded with *ever* and *soever*, making the words *whoever*, *whosoever*, *whomever*, *whomsoever*, *whatever*, and *whatsoever*. These words are used like the other relative pronouns, but one needs to be very careful to choose the correct form in such a sentence as: I will go with (*whoever* or *whomever*) is going my way. The relative pronoun here follows the preposition. The objective form seems to be called for; but closer observation shows that the whole clause is the object of the preposition *with*, while *whoever* is the subject of the verb-phrase *is going*. Observe this sentence: I will go with *whomever* I like. Now, *whomever* is the object of *like*.

LESSON 13

RELATIVE CLAUSES, RESTRICTIVE AND NONRESTRICTIVE (DESCRIPTIVE)

1. These waxwings are birds which usually winter in the mountains.
2. These waxwings, which usually winter in the mountains, fed on our barberry bushes through the cold months.

In the first sentence, the *which* clause restricts the general meaning of the word *birds*. In the second, the clause is descriptive, and merely adds a piece of interesting information in a parenthetical way. Like all parenthetical expressions, the descriptive clause is set off with commas, and may be omitted from the sentence without changing the meaning of the main statement.

Insert commas wherever needed.

1. The college which he chose was a well-known state university.
2. The University of Illinois which maintains an efficient agricultural college appealed strongly to William's father.
3. William's older sister whose interest is in art attends Smith College.
4. That is the college which her mother preferred.
5. Each one did whatever he could do best.
6. My occupation which is a very pleasant one is repairing bicycles.
7. My teacher who is very strict says that I am doing very well this year.
8. Mr. Woodrow Wilson who was formerly a teacher was twice elected President.
9. Do you know that Mr. Jackson who sells automobile supplies?

Write six sentences. In the first three use restrictive clauses; in the last three use nonrestrictive. Be sure to punctuate each correctly.

LESSON 14

PRACTICE IN THE USE OF WHO AND WHOM, INTERROGATIVE AND RELATIVE

I. Choose the correct form in each of these sentences and give the reason for your choice.

1. (*Who*, *whom*) have you met?
2. (*Who*, *whom*) was the gift intended for?
3. I will call (*whoever*, *whomever*) you want.
4. The books would be presented to (*whosoever*, *whomsoever*) would read them.
5. For (*who*, *whom*) were these shoes made?
6. Do you know the lady (*who*, *whom*) the flowers were sent to?
7. (*Who*, *whom*) shall I send, if not thee?
8. (*Who*, *whom*) are you thinking about?
9. (*Who*, *whom*) do you have in mind?
10. (*Who*, *whom*) will do the work?

II. Construct the following sentences:

1. A sentence containing the interrogative pronoun *who*.
2. A sentence containing the interrogative pronoun *whom* as object of the verb.
3. A sentence containing the interrogative pronoun *whom* as object of a preposition.
4. A sentence containing the relative pronoun *who*.
5. A sentence containing the relative pronoun *whom* as object of a verb.
6. A sentence containing the relative pronoun *whom* as object of a preposition.
7. A sentence containing the relative pronoun *whoever*.
8. A sentence containing the relative pronoun *whomever*.
9. A sentence containing the relative pronoun *whosoever*.
10. A sentence containing the relative pronoun *whomsoever*.

THE POSITION OF THE RELATIVE CLAUSE

You will notice that the relative pronoun should be as near as possible to its antecedent. If, in constructing your sentences, the relative clause is wrongly placed, your sentences will be vague or awkward.

Example. — Sir Walter Scott was visited at his home in Scotland by Washington Irving, the American writer, which is called Abbotsford.

What is called Abbotsford? Scott's home.

The sentence arranged so as to make that point clear reads as follows:

Washington Irving, the American writer, while in Scotland, visited Sir Walter Scott at his home, which is called Abbotsford.

LESSON 15

DEMONSTRATIVE PRONOUNS AND DEMONSTRATIVE ADJECTIVES

1. This is our new school building.
2. That is the old.
3. This building is our new school.
4. That building is the old.
5. These are the books we have bought.
6. Those are the library books for this room.
7. These books are very interesting.
8. Those books are our choice.

Demonstrate means to point out. — *This* and *that*, and their plural forms, *these* and *those*, are demonstrative words. When they are used with the nouns which they point out, they are called *demonstrative adjectives*. If the noun is omitted, and the word stands alone in the place of the noun, it is a *pronoun*, and is called a *demonstrative pronoun*.

Usage. — *This* and its plural, *these*, are used to point out objects relatively near at hand. *That* and its plural, *those*, point out objects relatively far away.

This apple, these apples; that tree, those trees.

That and *those* may be used merely to call to mind nouns which have been used in an earlier part of the sentence.

The length of a straight line between two points is less than that (length) of any curved line.

The mountains of Colorado are higher than those (mountains) of the Eastern States.

You see that the demonstrative pronoun makes it unnecessary to repeat the noun itself.

LESSON 16

INDEFINITE PRONOUNS

There are in common use five personal pronouns, four relative, three interrogative, and two demonstrative. Besides these, there are about forty words having the nature in part of pronouns, adjectives, and nouns. They are for convenience called *indefinite pronouns*. They are,

each, either, neither, some, any, many, few, all, both, one, none, aught, naught, someone, something, somebody, anyone, anything, anybody, everyone, everything, everybody, nothing, nobody, somewhat, such, other, each other, one another, same, several, and similar words.

Usage. — 1. Pronouns do not take the *'s* to show possession, except a few of these indefinite pronouns which are like nouns in some of their uses. We write *it, its*, but *one's, another's, everybody's, nobody's, everybody else's*, etc.

Notice that the preferred literary form is *everybody else's*, and not *everybody's else.*

2. Agreement of certain Indefinite Pronouns with the verb.

None takes a singular or plural verb according to its meaning.

None are (plural) to be admitted unless they bring tickets.
None is (singular) responsible except him.

All is treated in the same way as *none.*

All (everything) was ready for the game to begin.
All (all the people) were ready for the game to begin.

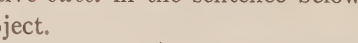
Choose the correct verb forms in the following sentences.

1. Each (*were, was*) friendly to the other.
2. Everybody (*has, have*) chosen his part.
3. By that time all (*were, was*) memorizing their lines.
4. All (*has, have*) been arranged for the track meet.
5. None (*is, are*) so blind as he who will not see.
6. None (*is, are*) so blind as they who will not see.

LESSON 17

ADJECTIVES

Adjectives are words which modify nouns and pronouns. It is only as predicate adjectives that they modify pronouns. The adjective *sweet* in the sentence below names a quality of the subject.



Some adjectives merely point out a particular thing. Others name a quality belonging to some noun.

These pencils are all yellow.
Yellow pencils are no better than black.

USES OF ADJECTIVES

1. An adjective is sometimes used without its noun. See the word *black* on page 68.

2. Demonstrative pronouns are frequently used with nouns. They are then called demonstrative adjectives.

Pronoun: This is mine.
Adjective: This pen is mine.

3. The possessive forms of nouns and pronouns are used with nouns as if they were adjectives.

My fountain pen flows too freely.
His bicycle is in the repair shop.
Charles's bicycle is in the repair shop.

4. Nouns are sometimes used as adjectives.

The soldier dropped his *cartridge* belt.
Book-reviews are published in this magazine.

5. The interrogative pronouns *which* and *what* are regularly used as interrogative adjectives also.

Pronoun: Which is your coat?
Adjective: Which coat is yours?
Pronoun: What have you in your pocket?

6. Two of the relative pronouns, together with their compounds with *ever*, are used as relative (conjunctive) adjectives.

You understand *what* lesson was assigned.
Do you remember *which* lesson was assigned for to-morrow?
I will try *whichever* road you suggest.
I will take *whatever* device seems most promising of success.

7. Many of the indefinite pronouns are also used as indefinite adjectives.

Teaching Directions. — *The usual classification of adjectives into* descriptive, limiting, articles, *and* numerals, *seems to serve no useful purpose. Indeed, the only excuse for including the preceding seven observations about adjectives is the belief that the knowledge of those facts will give confidence to a speaker or writer when, in the midst of a sentence, he suddenly becomes aware of a form of expression that seems somewhat unusual. The same explanation applies to much of the information given in the lessons on pronouns.*

The important thing to know about adjectives is comparison; *for it is upon this that many writers and speakers stumble.*

THE INFLECTION OF ADJECTIVES — COMPARISON

In some languages, adjectives have distinct forms to indicate number, gender, and case. English adjectives have no such inflections, but most of them do have three forms, to indicate the three degrees: Positive, Comparative, and Superlative.

1. Words of one syllable usually form these degrees by adding *-er* and *-est* to the simple form.

cold	colder	coldest

2. Words of more than two syllables usually prefix the adverbs *more* and *most* to the simple form, or *less* and *least.*

beautiful, more beautiful, most beautiful
beautiful, less beautiful, least beautiful

3. Words of two syllables may be compared usually by either method.

intense, more intense, most intense
intense, intenser, intensest
feeble, more feeble, most feeble
feeble, feebler, feeblest

4. Some adjectives of two syllables, however, sound awkward with the *-er* and *-est* endings. The words ending in *-ful* are typical of the kind. This would sound odd:

joyful joyfuller joyfulest

5. A few adjectives are compared irregularly.

Positive	*Comparative*	*Superlative*
near	nearer	nearest, next
far	farther, further	farthest, furthest
much, many	more	most
bad, ill	worse	worst
good, well	better	best
little	less	least

6. A few adjectives, like *square*, *round*, *perfect*, *straight*, *complete*, *white*, and *black* could not logically be compared. If a thing is round, another cannot be rounder. If something is perfect, something else cannot be most perfect. But in actual practice we do compare these words. When we say, This line is straighter than that; and the last one is straightest of all, we mean merely that the second more nearly approaches absolute straightness, and the third most nearly approaches it.

7. A few of these words, however, are not compared in actual speaking. We do not say *most vertical*, *more equal*, *more infinite*, *more daily*, etc.

Written Exercise. — Write out the three forms of each of these adjectives.

1. gentle
2. happy
3. blue
4. skillful
5. contemptible
6. white
7. fair
8. old
9. rude
10. excellent
11. young
12. round
13. gorgeous
14. gracious
15. rich
16. perfect
17. splendid
18. dangerous
19. great
20. true

LESSON 18

ADVERBS

In their uses, adverbs are like adjectives. They are modifying words; but they modify, not nouns (as adjectives do), but verbs, adjectives, other adverbs, and, once in a long while, even prepositions.

1. He ran *rapidly* at first.
2. The ice was *unusually* smooth that winter.
3. The wheels revolved *very* swiftly.
4. That is a result *far* beyond our expectations.

The first adverb modifies a verb, the second an adjective, the third an adverb, and the fourth a preposition.

THE FUNCTION OF ADVERBS

Adverbs usually indicate the *place*, the *time*, the *cause*, or the *manner* of an action. They also show *direction*, *condition*, *measure* of *distance*, *degree*, etc.

OBSERVATIONS ABOUT ADVERBS

1. Some words are used, without change, as either adjectives or adverbs. What the word is depends upon its use; that is, upon the word which it modifies.

Adjective: He is well.
Adverb: He ran well.

2. Quite a number of adverbs are formed by adding *-ly* to the adjective.

slow, slowly	fresh, freshly
rapid, rapidly	beautiful, beautifully
brief, briefly	bright, brightly

3. A few nouns are used like adverbs.

He walked a *mile* (measure of distance).
The address was an *hour* long.

4. Many words are either adverbs or prepositions, depending upon their use in the sentence.

Adverb: Lift *up* your heads.
Preposition: The kitten ran *up* the steps.
Adverb: Then they looked *around.*
Preposition: We looked *around* the house.

If the word is followed by a noun object, it is a preposition. If it merely gives direction, it is an adverb.

Comparison. — Adverbs are compared by using the adverbs of degree, *more* and *most*, *less* and *least.* Of course, many adverbs are not compared at all. The adverbs that indicate manner and degree are the principal adverbs that are compared.

Write out the three degrees for the following adverbs:

1. freshly
2. rapidly
3. sluggishly
4. distinctly
5. audibly
6. carelessly
7. willingly
8. kindly
9. cheerfully
10. threateningly
11. slowly
12. briefly
13. thoroughly
14. brightly
15. distantly
16. carefully
17. fearfully
18. fearlessly
19. timidly
20. swiftly

LESSON 19

PUNCTUATION

1. Any series of *words*, *phrases*, or *clauses* (three or more) should be separated by the use of commas. Notice that a comma is used between the last two, even when they

are separated by such conjunctions as *and*, or *or*. This custom has been noted briefly in a previous lesson.

Such a series of words may be any part of a sentence, such as a compound subject, predicate, or object, or a series of adjectives, adverbs, or adjective or adverbial phrases.

My books, papers, and pencils have disappeared.
He would neither sell, trade, nor give to his partners his share of the mine.
He sold his potatoes, beans, barley, and oats at a good price.
Outdoor sports are popular in the spring, in the summer, and in the autumn.

2. Two adjectives modifying the same noun are not separated by a comma unless they are somewhat alike in meaning. We write a *big red apple* without a comma. But a *cold, snowy day* requires a comma.

3. Do *not* use a comma at the *beginning* of a series.

Wrong: I am studying, music, painting, and dancing outside of school.

Punctuate the following sentences.

1. Apples peaches and apricots are all fall fruits.
2. She answered in a cool collected manner.
3. Stevenson Marryat Connolly and Conrad write interesting sea-stories.
4. I like neither rice potatoes nor macaroni.
5. The cloud shadow was coming on swiftly silently.
6. These stories were printed first in the *Youth's Companion* in *Saint Nicholas* and in the *American Boy*.
7. There is no excuse for his careless speech for his bad manners nor for his repeated tardiness.
8. We came through darkness rain and mud.
9. An immense black cloud rolled up in the west.
10. Warm sluggish currents of air floated by.

NOTE. — You will observe that there is a distinct, natural pause between the two adjectives that are properly separated by a comma, and no pause otherwise.

LESSON 20

VERBS

Teaching Direction. — *As has been our custom with other parts of speech, we are eliminating every phase of the grammar of verbs that does not direct pupils in forming sentences, or in judging their own sentences after they are made. We shall have to call attention to* transitive *and* intransitive *verbs, because of the confusion likely to occur in using nominative and objective forms of the pronouns after the verbs. This also makes a note on* voice *necessary.* Mode *is not mentioned. The few uses of the subjunctive in conditional clauses will be shown as an exercise.* Person *and* number *will be taught only with the few verb forms which require agreement of verb and subject in person, and with the* -s *forms of the third person singular verbs. Keep to the useful and the simple.*

DEVELOPMENT

The Latin language was able in most cases to make the statement, or do the asking, in a sentence with but one word for the predicate verb. This was possible because the language had many forms for a single verb. *Amo, amas, amat, amamus, amatis, amant,* were the six forms the Latins used to say, *I love, you love, he loves, we love, you love, they love.* Observe that English has only two forms, *love* and *loves*, to serve in all the places where Latin used six. The Latin word *equito*, meaning *ride*, has, in all, 120 forms. The English word *ride* has only five forms — *ride, rides, riding, rode, ridden.* But we express every shade of meaning that the Latins expressed. We do so by using groups of words where the simple word would not express the exact meaning we desire.

Examples:

1. I *read* the book last year. (predicate verb one word).
2. I *have read* the book. (Predicate verb two words.)

3. I *have been reading* the book to-day. (Predicate verb three words.)
4. I *should have been reading* the book to-day. (Predicate verb four words.)

Groups of words (two or more) used to make a single predication are called *verb phrases*. In analyzing, or parsing, a verb phrase should be regarded as a single verb. The individual words in the group should not be parsed or analyzed.

TRANSITIVE AND INTRANSITIVE VERBS

1. Harry *threw* → the ball.
2. It *struck* → the brick wall.
3. It *bounced* eight feet.
4. This boy *is* ← Harry.

The verbs *threw* and *struck* show action directed away from the subject of the sentence toward some other noun or pronoun *object*. Verbs which act in this way are called *transitive* verbs. If a transitive predicate verb has a pronoun complement, the pronoun must be in the *objective* form.

The word *bounced* does not direct the action toward anything. The word *is* indicates that the subject and the predicate complement are the same person or thing. Such verbs are called *intransitive*. All verbs which are not *transitive* are *intransitive*.

Teaching Direction. — *The only use for the distinction between transitive and intransitive verbs is to determine whether to follow them with a nominative or objective pronoun. For this reason we omit any mention of copulative, auxiliary, or other verb classifications. We are obliged to retain* voice *because of the rhetorical effect in composition.*

Exercise. — Select either a nominative or objective pronoun form to complete each of these sentences.

1. He does not know the road. I will direct (*he, him*).
2. The papers are scattered. Will you please bind (*they, them*)?
3. I do not know Mrs. Carey. Is that (*she, her*)?
4. Mother called (*we, us*).
5. This is (*I, me*) at the door.
6. Mr. Harper brought (*we, us*) home in his big car.
7. If that is (*she, her*), tell (*she, her*) to come in.
8. If Aunt Rose should send (*he, him*), we should like it.
9. Your gloves are gray, are n't they? Are these (*they, them*)?
10. Yes. I bought (*they, them*) only last week.

Diagrams to show the relation of the predicate verbs and their complements.

7. (you) | tell → her to come in

if
that | is ← she

In a way similar to that shown above, diagram sentences 6, 8, and 10.

Teaching Direction. — *Find out which of your pupils have difficulty with the pronoun forms, and then continue for weeks, if necessary, to require them to choose between the nominative and objective forms, until they can do so without hesitation. The author could have supplied a list of a hundred such sentences here, but there is no reason for drilling a whole class upon a possible hundred chances of making mistakes, when the obvious thing to do is to correct day after day the few who make mistakes, and to confine the drill to the mistakes these few pupils actually make.*

LESSON 21

CONJUGATION OF VERBS

Some languages have four or five conjugations (sets of verb forms). English has but two, and they are very simple. All of the verbs that have come into the language within

recent times (within four or five hundred years) add *-a* or *-ed* to a common form to indicate past time:

print, printed; paint, painted; telephone, telephoned.

Most of the very old, simple verbs change the main vowel sound to form the past tense and past participle:

drink, drank, drunk; ride, rode, ridden;
sing, sang, sung; buy, bought, bought.

The *-ed* verbs, because they require the help of an additional syllable, are sometimes called the *weak verbs*.[1] Because the other verbs make the changes within themselves, without the help of an added syllable, they are called the *strong verbs*.[2]

Principal Parts. — The *weak verbs* have only four different forms: *call, calls, calling, called.* The strong verbs have usually five forms, like: *ring, rings, ringing, rang, rung.* But observe: *bring, brings, bringing, brought.* In this word the past tense and past participle are the same: I *brought;* I *have brought.*

Three of these forms are called the *principal parts.*

Present Tense	*Past Tense*	*Past Participle*
ring	rang	rung
bring	brought	brought
call	called	called
carve	carved	carved

Knowing these three forms of any verb, one can use a verb, or make a verb phrase, to express any kind of idea that the verb is capable of expressing. The other two forms differ only by the addition of an *-s* or an *-ing* to the present tense form.

[1] They are also called *regular verbs.*
[2] They are also called *irregular verbs.*

Only a few verbs are troublesome to speakers of the English language. Those which many children stumble over are listed below. You may have trouble with only two or three out of the whole list; or there may be still others which trouble you. If there are, your teachers and schoolmates have probably noticed them, and will call your attention to your mistakes and help you to correct them.

Check off from this list the verbs which trouble you. Add to your troublesome list others which you know you misuse, and then practise with the troublesome forms in oral and written sentences, over and over, till the correct form begins to *look* right and *sound* right to you.

Example. — Suppose one of your troubles is saying: *I seen*, and *I have saw*. The principal parts of *see* are: present tense *see;* past tense *saw;* past participle *seen.*

Practise on such sentences as these:

I *saw* the notice in the paper.
I *have seen* that more than once.
I *had seen* that tree before.
They *saw* a bear and an antelope.
You *saw* it. It *saw* us. It *had seen* us.
She *saw* it. She *has seen* us. He *has seen* us.

Remember, it is not knowing what is right that will help you; it is practice, till the correct form *looks* right and *sounds* right to you.

A LIST OF TROUBLESOME VERBS

Present Tense	*Past Tense*	*Past Participle*
beat	beat	beaten
begin	began	begun
break	broke	broken
bring	brought	brought

burst	burst	burst
catch	caught	caught
climb	climbed	climbed
come	came	come
cost	cost	cost
do	did	done
drink	drank	drunk
eat	ate	eaten
flee	fled	fled
flow	flowed	flowed
fly	flew	flown
freeze	froze	frozen
give	gave	given
get	got	got
go	went	gone
grow	grew	grown
know	knew	known
lay	laid	laid
lie (to recline)	lay	lain
prove	proved	proved
ride	rode	ridden
ring	rang	rung
rise	rose	risen
run	ran	run
see	saw	seen
set	set	set
sit	sat	sat
spring	sprang	sprung
steal	stole	stolen
swim	swam	swum
swing	swung	swung
take	took	taken
teach	taught	taught
throw	threw	thrown
wring	wrung	wrung
write	wrote	written

Exercise. — Use the correct form of the verb in each of these sentences.

1. Our team was (*beat, beaten*) in the game Saturday.
2. The bleachers were full five minutes after the game had (*began, begun*).
3. Fanny has (*broke, busted, broken*) one of her hand-painted china plates.
4. Ned has (*come in, came in*) late three days this week.
5. I (*come, came*) by your house Thursday morning, to go to school with you.
6. Caroline could never have (*done, did*) that piece of work without Irene's helping her.
7. I (*done, have did, have done*) all my work alone this week.
8. The canaries have (*drank, drunk*) all the water from their cup.
9. I have never (*eat, ate, eaten*) such good pears before.
10. That little stream has (*flowed, flown*) along beside the road there for three years.
11. The ice on our skating-pond has already (*freezed, froze, frozen*) three inches thick.
12. How much had you already (*gave, given*)?
13. Have you (*got, gotten*) your lessons ready for to-morrow?
14. The other girls had already (*went, gone*) home before we came in.
15. The bell has (*rang, rung*).
16. Have you ever (*seen, saw*) a butterfly like this one?
17. The acrobat (*swung, swang*) up and caught the trapeze bar.
18. Fred (*seen, saw*) him do it.
19. You could not have (*saw, seen*) him from where you sat.
20. Foster has (*wrote, written*) all of these sentences correctly.
21. I (*laid, lay*) the books on your desk yesterday.
22. I (*laid, lay*) on the couch for a brief rest.
23. I have (*laid, lain*) the sticks in a straight row.
24. I have (*laid, lain*) in bed until eight every day this week.
25. I (*set, sat*) the vase on your table before you came in.
26. I (*set, sat*) in your room half an hour waiting for you to come.
27. I have (*set, sat*) here waiting for an hour.
28. I have (*set, sat*) the chairs around the table.

Teaching Direction. — *All good teachers soon learn the individual errors of each pupil. No one pupil misuses* many *verbs. Find out what the troublesome verbs are, and then give individual*

Kenneth H. Adams.

drills until each pupil corrects his own habits. Keep a list for each pupil, and as he ceases to misuse one of his troublesome verbs, scratch it off his list.

It is not advisable to stop here and drill on these troublesome verbs until each pupil has mastered the use of all of his list. It seems best to take only time enough to become aware of each individual pupil's troublesome verbs, and then continue to work over them while other lessons are in progress until they are no longer troublesome.

The twenty-eight sentences in this exercise are shown merely as examples of what may be done, and not as a complete drill upon the troublesome verbs. The list may easily be extended.

LESSON 22

THE TENSE OF VERBS

English verbs have only two distinct forms to indicate the time of an action. There is a form for present tense (present time) and one for past tense (past time): *see, saw; lend, lent; break, broke; mend, mended.* All other time relations are expressed in verb phrases like *will send, should have sent, had sent, shall have sent, am sending, had been sending*, and other similar groups of words.

The principal time relations which may be expressed in English by making use of verb forms or verb phrases are the following:

	Weak Verb	*Strong Verb*
1. *Present Tense*	I print	I write
2. *Present Perfect*	I have printed	I have written
3. *Past*	I printed	I wrote
4. *Past Perfect*	I had printed	I had written
5. *Future*	I shall print	I shall write
6. *Future Perfect*	I shall have printed	I shall have written

In the present tense one must say, *He prints; She prints,* adding an *s* when the subject is third person singular. The

present perfect tense requires *has* for the third person singular, *He has printed; She has written.*

Progressive action can be shown with each of the six tenses by using the present participle in *-ing*.

1. *I am printing.*
2. *I have been printing.*
3. *I was printing.*
4. *I had been printing.*
5. *I shall be printing.*
6. *I shall have been printing.*

In a clause which expresses a condition contrary to fact we regularly say, If I *were* writing, if he *were* writing, I wish I *were*, instead of the more common forms, I *was*, he *was*, she *was*, it *was*.

Any one of the helping verbs *may*, *can*, *must*, *might*, *could*, *would*, or *should* may be used as a part of a verb phrase, to indicate the shade of meaning one wishes to put into a sentence. For example, I *might* have written, I *could* have written, I *can* write, I *may* be writing.

The order and composition of a verb phrase may be changed in such a way as to make the subject the receiver of the act instead of the doer of the act.

1. Subject active: He *printed* the tickets.
2. Subject passive (not active): The tickets *were printed* by him.

Observe that the object, *tickets*, in the first sentence became the subject in the second. The subject of the first sentence was put into the objective case, and made the object of a preposition, in the second sentence. You will notice that the verb *print* is a transitive verb, but that it takes an object only when the subject is active.

Notice these three sentences:

1. Ralph's father gave him a bicycle for his birthday.
2. A bicycle was given him for his birthday.
3. He was given a bicycle for his birthday.

In the third sentence the word *bicycle*, which should have become the subject of the passive construction, was kept as a kind of object. This *retained object* is not the customary usage, and is avoided by careful writers.

The effect of changing a sentence to the passive construction is to throw the *emphasis* upon the receiver of the act rather than upon the doer. If you wish to speak vividly and directly, use the active constructions largely. Turn to the passive only when it expresses an idea just as you want it.

Teaching Direction. — *Have your pupils write out certain verbs, like* be, find, break, have, paint, sew, *and* telephone, *in full for given tenses. The purpose of such a set of exercises is not that the pupils shall memorize any verb in all its modes, tenses, voices, persons, and number, but that they may* become aware *of the machinery we regularly employ to express certain shades of meaning.*

Have them form verb phrases in some of the tenses with can, should, might, *etc.*

You have observed that nothing is made of person *and* number *of verbs. There is no agreement in person and number between a verb and its subject except in the case of the* -s *forms of verbs in the third person and singular number, and the forms of the verb* be, am, is, was, were. *These matters are so slight that it seems better to teach them to one who is learning the language as a matter of memory rather than to teach an elaborate agreement which does not exist. The same may be said about mode. We make no mistakes in the use of mode. The* forms *are the same for all, except the vestige of a subjunctive, which may be taught by a few concrete examples.*

We do not have any verb forms for the passive voice constructions. All English verbs are active. We must resort to verb phrases to get the effect of passive constructions. While the passive verb phrase is not used as frequently as the active, you must not let your pupils get the idea that it is not correct or that it is useless. We often want the emphasis drawn away from the subject and thrown upon the object. We often wish to express ourselves in

speech and writing in the less direct manner, which only the passive construction makes possible. The passive form may also be of distinct aid in securing variety in sentence structure.

LESSON 23

VERBALS — THE PARTICIPLE

Teaching Direction. — *The author suggests that Lessons* 23, 24, *and* 25 *be omitted when the class is one that is taking systematic grammar for the first time. They are useful lessons for later reference, and can be taught with profit to pupils who have already had some study of grammar.*

Very few mistakes are made in speaking and writing verbals. Students learn to avoid these possible errors, not by learning the grammar of verbals, but by becoming so accustomed to the idiom that only the correct form sounds well. *A pupil sometimes desires this information about these noun and adjective forms of the verb, because he often becomes conscious that he is using words in odd ways, which apparently do not parse. He wonders whether these usages are correct. We are giving this information so that the speaker may be able to* test *his own speech and writing. Do not insist upon your pupils understanding all of this at once. Keep it for reference.*

DEVELOPMENT

Four forms of the verb are unable, standing alone, to make a statement or ask a question. They do not make predications. These are the two participles and the two infinitives.

The two participles — the present (*singing*, *driving*, *exciting*, *drilling*) and the past (*sung*, *driven*, *excited*, *drilled*) are used mainly as adjective modifiers, or as parts of verb phrases.

Participles used as adjective modifiers:

1. *Singing* birds are welcome everywhere.
2. Our *driving* horses are in the pasture to-day.
3. We are having an *exciting* time.
4. The boys *drilling* there are scouts.
5. Well-*drilled* scouts march in perfect time.
6. Horses too hard *driven* soon become tired.

Participles used as parts of verb phrases:

1. The birds are *singing*.
2. We have been *driving* our new car.
3. The scouts have been *drilling* an hour.
4. You have *excited* my curiosity.
5. They should have *drilled* on the lawn.

Observe these four sentences:

1. The birds are brown.
2. The birds are singing.
1. The scouts are young.
2. The scouts are trained.

In the sentences numbered 1, an adjective is used to complete the predicate. In those numbered 2, a present or past participle is used. This shows that the predicate participle is often an adjective, in a way modifying the subject. In such a sentence as, *You might have said that yesterday*, the word *said* has no adjective force. Since the distinction between the two uses is very vague in some cases, it seems best, in analyzing sentences, not to separate the verb phrase when one part of it is a present or past participle. No purpose is served by making such a separation.

ERRORS IN THE USE OF PARTICIPLES — THE DANGLING PARTICIPLE

1. Coming to school this morning, we waded through the mud.
2. While speaking to one of the boys, the fish slipped off my hook.

The participle *coming* in the first sentence modifies *we*. In the second sentence *speaking* does not modify *fish*. If

the sentence had been written, *While I was speaking to one of the boys, the fish slipped off my hook*, the participle would have been a proper part of a verb phrase; but as it is used in the second sentence, it dangles about without modifying anything. This bad construction is called the *dangling participle.*

THE ABSOLUTE CONSTRUCTION

1. Having arrived late, the play was already half finished.
2. The day being cloudy, we postponed our camping excursion.
3. The supper now being over, the strangers asked to be shown their places of rest.
4. It being now twilight, you might have seen a number of stars tumble out of their places.

The first of these sentences contains the bad dangling participle, which modifies nothing and gives a wrong impression. It seems to say that the *play* arrived late.

Each of the second, third, and fourth sentences contains an *absolute construction* of the participle. While the participial phrase modifies nothing, it is not misleading. It usually gives a *reason* for something which is to follow in the main clause.

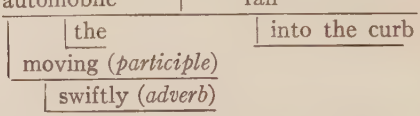
Punctuation. — The absolute construction of the participial phrase is always set off by a comma, or by two commas if it occurs within the sentence, instead of at the beginning.

Correct the following sentences and punctuate the corrected sentences properly.

1. Having eaten our lunch the old horse slowly drew our camp wagon up the hill.
2. While finishing a piece of tatting the elephants passed us.
3. When eating a rough-looking native of that section shuffled into our camp.
4. When only seven years old her father and mother died and left her an orphan.

ANALYSIS OF SENTENCES CONTAINING PARTICIPLES

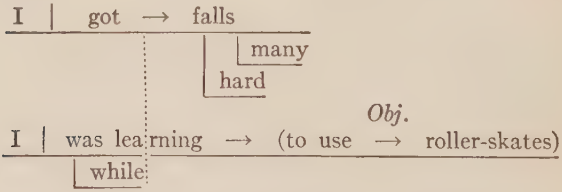
1. The swiftly moving automobile ran into the curb.
2. The automobile, moving swiftly, ran into the curb.



Very often the *order* of the words makes no difference in the grammatical relations of the parts of the sentence.

To analyze a sentence containing a *participial phrase* which is easily recognized as a contraction of a longer *clause*, it is usually best to enlarge the phrase into a complete clause.

1. While learning to use roller-skates, I got many hard falls.
2. While I was learning to use roller-skates, I got many hard falls.



Punctuation. — Participial modifiers — words, phrases, or contracted clauses — are set off by commas only when they are semiparenthetical, as in the second sentence above.

Punctuate the following sentences correctly and then either analyze orally or diagram them:

1. I had been hurrying through my work.
2. Hurrying through my work I did not do it very well.
3. While coming to this place they passed through the Rocky Mountain region.
4. The canning process is fairly simple.
5. Having finished our work we had a short time for play.

LESSON 24

VERBALS — THE INFINITIVE WITH *TO*

The infinitive with *to* is usually a noun in a sentence, and as such it may be used in any way that a noun may. The common uses are:

1. As *subject:* *To be* useful is my aim.
2. As *predicate noun:* My aim is *to be* useful.

The real noun *usefulness* could be substituted in either sentence for the infinitive and its accompanying adjective *useful.*

3. As *object:* I have chosen *to be* useful.
4. As *object of a preposition:* He does nothing except *play.* He asked nothing but *to receive* justice.
5. As an *appositive:* Her constant wish, *to be* useful, was shown in everything she did.

Besides these five regular noun-uses, the infinitive with *to* has four other fairly common uses:

1. To take the place of a *verb* in a condensed clause:

he | asked → that I should wait

he | asked → me to wait

2. As an *adjective modifier:* Houses *to rent* are scarce.
3. To serve as a *predicate adjective:* My work is *to begin* (is beginning) at seven.
4. *As an adverb:* I came here *to work.*

To work names the purpose of my coming: I came here *for the purpose of working.* One of the functions of adverbs is to indicate purpose. But the *to* of the infinitive once served as a real preposition. For this reason some gram-

marians call *to work* a prepositional adverbial phrase, having *work* as the object of the preposition *to*.

Some infinitives are written without the *to*.

1. You cannot make him *work*.
2. I heard her *call*.

Point out the infinitives in these sentences, and give the syntax (function in the sentence) of each.

1. I expect to enjoy the play.
2. Do you expect your mother to enjoy the play?
3. We have potatoes to sell this week.
4. She does nothing but chatter.
5. To be happy is to make friends.
6. Do not try to be too gay.
7. The captain ordered the company to halt.
8. They tried to keep the step.
9. He had but one hobby — to drill his men perfectly.
10. Please, auntie, make Maude help me.
11. When is this excitement to end?
12. I thought your plan to be a good one.

DIAGRAMS

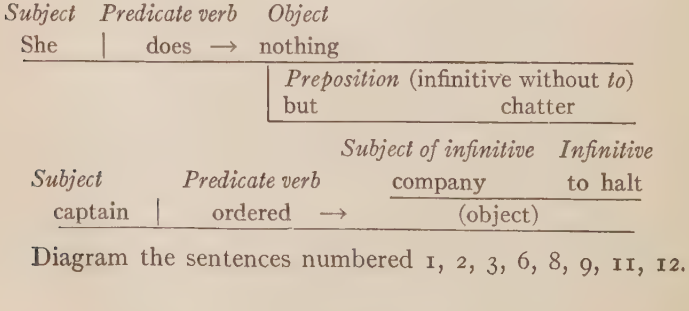


Diagram the sentences numbered 1, 2, 3, 6, 8, 9, 11, 12.

LESSON 25

VERBALS — THE GERUND

Some nouns end in *-ing* and have no verbal nature at all, —*learning*, *reading*, etc., when used like the word *geography* merely as names.

But there is a group of *-ing* words that are part verb and part noun. They are more like verbs than nouns in their uses. These are *gerunds*. They act like the infinitive with *to*, and for that reason are sometimes called *infinitives* in *-ing*. Frequently you can use either the gerund or the infinitive in a given sentence.

Infinitive: To prepare for their guests required only a few minutes.
Gerund: Preparing for their guests required only a few minutes.

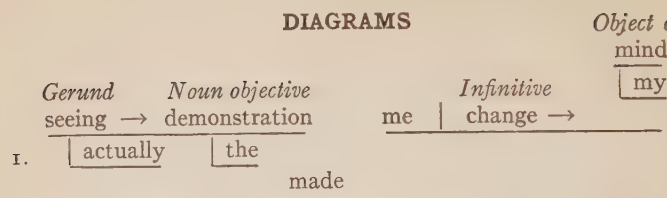
The gerund may be used like a noun, as subject, predicate noun, object, object of a preposition, or as an appositive.

1. *Subject:* Actually *seeing* the demonstration made me change my mind.
2. *Predicate Noun:* His greatest fault is *being* sarcastic.
3. *Object:* He practised *mending* china.
4. *Object of Preposition:* He spends all his time in carefully *mending* broken china.
5. *Appositive:* His occupation, *mending* china, is an interesting one.

Gerunds are like verbs and nouns both. Like verbs they imply motion and take adverbial modifiers. (See sentences 1 and 4.) They also take adjective complements (see sentence 2) like verbs, and object complements like verbs. (See sentences 1, 3, 4, and 5.)

DIAGRAMS

1.



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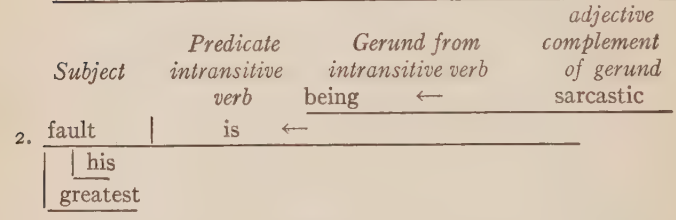

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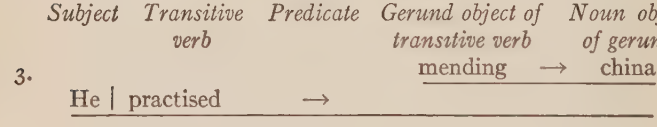

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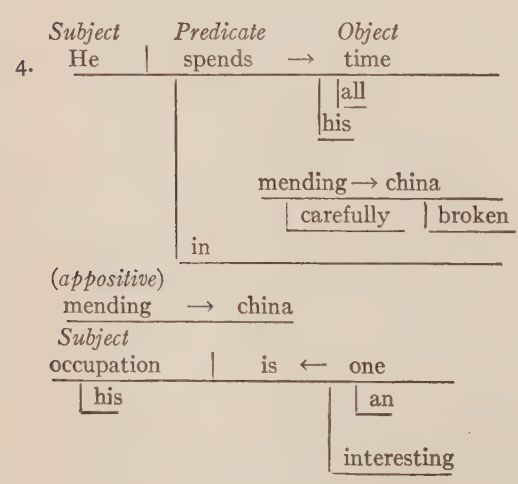


Diagram the following sentences:

1. You should not judge a man's actions without carefully considering his motives.
2. Carefully considering a man's motives should precede judging his actions.
3. The engineers advocated constructing a lock canal across Panama.
4. Actually constructing a sea-level canal was found to be too expensive.
5. The greater expense of constructing a sea-level canal was prohibitive.

LESSON 26

SHALL AND WILL — SHOULD AND WOULD

Teaching Direction. — *In parts of the country the people, by habit, use* shall *and* will *and* should *and* would *according to the literary customs; but in the greater portions of the country these words are not so used. There are good reasons for the literary uses, but it seems much simpler merely to tell what those uses are, and to give practice in using the words in sentences, rather than to ask pupils to learn the reasons and apply these each time. Habits of using the words correctly will probably be much more effective than knowing a reason for the literary uses.*

A General Direction. — Get into the habit of saying *I shall, we shall, I should, we should.* Then, whether or not you remember the particular rules shown below for the use of these words with a pronoun in the first person, you will be right ninety-five times in a hundred.

Particular Directions. — 1. When you mean mere future expectation or intention use *shall* with a subject pronoun in the *first* person, and *will* with the *second* or *third* person.

I shall go	You will go	He will go
We shall go		She will go
		It will go
		They will go

2. When you mean to indicate any exercise of the will power, such as a promise, or determination, or the like, just reverse the order. Use *will* with the *first* person, and *shall* with the *second*, or *third*.

I will go	You shall go	He shall go
We will go		She shall go
		It shall go
		They shall go

These two statements are the fundamental ones. Be sure that you know them, and that you acquire the habit of using them. The three which follow are just the application of these two to particular kinds of sentences.

Teaching Direction. — *The three rules which follow are useful for reference, but young children should not be required to learn them. They are useful only to those who wish to be sure about the finer distinctions in writing and speaking.*

3. In object clauses of indirect discourse, use the form that would have been used in the original direct statement. These clauses occur after such verbs as *say*, *declare*, *think*, *hope*, *fear*, etc.

Notice these sentences:

I think I shall go.
I had determined that I would go.

In the first sentence, the indirect-discourse object-clause, *I shall go*, expresses simple future intention, and uses *shall* with the first person.

In the second, the speaker originally said, "*I will go.*" This expresses determination, and so uses *will* with the first person.

He promised that he would go.

What he said was, "I will go." This is a promise.

He thought he should probably be going next week.

The direct statement of this is:

I shall probably be going next week.

4. In all other subordinate clauses, always use *shall* to indicate simple future time, and *will* to indicate any act involving will power.

If I should decide to go, I will send you word.
We hardly knew whether we should expect you or not.

5. In questions, always say, *shall I*, and *shall we*. When the subject is second or third person, use the form that you expect in the answer; 1 or 2 on page 94 will show what you might properly expect.

Will you go with us next week? I will.

The sentence asks for a promise, and gets it. (See 2.)

Shall you be going away soon? I shall.

This sentence merely asks for a statement of intention. (See 1.)

Shall these children be required to write the lessons for to-morrow? They shall. (See 2.)

Will these children write to-morrow's lesson? I am sure they will. (See 1.)

Should you like to go to the theatre with me Thursday evening? I should like it very much.

This is polite. *I would like* to go, would mean that you are compelling yourself (or *willing*) to like what you really do not care for.

Oral Exercise. — Choose the preferred form (*shall*, *will*, *should*, or *would*) in these sentences, and refer to the rules given above (1, 2, 3, 4, or 5) to support your choice.

Group I. (Make these sentences express simple future time, without any reference to the will of the speaker.)

1. He fears that Alice —— not be able to come to the luncheon to-morrow.
2. —— I come in now, or —— we all wait outside?
3. How much coffee —— I order?
4. The time —— come when you —— see this more clearly.
5. —— you call again when my mother is at home, Mrs. Scott?
6. —— I call again on Thursday?
7. —— I have another letter from you before Christmas?
8. He —— decline your offer, I am sure.
9. —— you be at home to-day at about four o'clock?
10. I —— go to the theatre this evening; you —— stay at home, I suppose.
11. Mother was just inquiring when you —— come.
12. —— you like to attend the concert this evening?
13. If you had not caught me, I —— have fallen.
14. If I —— try to swim, I am sure I —— drown.
15. He thought you —— be hurt.
16. I —— go to the theatre; you —— stay at home.

Group II. (Make these sentences indicate determination, a promise, or some other exercise of the will of the speaker.) Use *shall*, *will*, *should*, or *would*.

1. —— you buy your apples from me this winter?
2. I —— go to the theatre; you —— stay at home.
3. They —— provide for the lunch baskets whether they want to or not.
4. —— you be here promptly at ten o'clock in the morning?
5. They —— pay the penalty for their negligence.
6. We —— not fail to keep our promise to you.
7. You —— be there as you promised, I suppose.
8. —— Edward be required to take part in the exercises?
9. Mother was just inquiring when you —— come.
10. He declared that Albert —— be required to do the work.
11. Father asked me where I —— be at ten o'clock.
12. —— you try, even if you were sure of success?

LESSON 27

PREPOSITIONS

1. Candles were lighted early.
2. Candles were lighted *in* the evening.
3. Tallow candles were lighted.
4. Candles *of* tallow were lighted.

In English we cannot have a noun or pronoun modifying a verb directly. Sometimes it is not desirable to place the noun or pronoun as a direct modifier, even of another noun. We have a few little words (about twenty-five in common use) which serve to make the connection indirectly between the noun or pronoun and the word which it is to modify.

Observe that the word *in* makes the connection between *lighted* and *evening*, and that the whole phrase *in the evening* serves to name the time just as *early* does in the first sentence. *Of* in the fourth sentence shows the relation between *tallow* and *candles*.

The prepositions in common use are: *in, on, upon, between, out, over, under, through, by, beside, besides, except, from, to, at, above, before, behind, after, into, against, within, without, with, of, throughout, during.*

Besides these there are groups of words which serve as single prepositions. These are not separated in analyzing sentences. Some of these groups are: *in spite of, according to, because of, aside from, up to, out from, out of.*

We sometimes say *think of me* instead of *remember me*, or *ran up* instead of *approached*. In such cases the preposition is in reality a part of the verb; but if separated from the verb and regarded as a single word, it is an *adverb*.

Oral Exercise. — From your history or literature lesson for to-day, select all the prepositions or preposition word-groups, and point out their function in the sentences.

LESSON 28

COÖRDINATE CONJUNCTIONS

Words which join words, phrases, or clauses of equal rank are called *coördinate conjunctions*. There are only a few of them: *and*, *but*, *or*, and sometimes *for*. In addition to these, there are others that are always used in pairs: *either . . . or*, *neither . . . nor*, *both . . . and*, and *not only . . . but also*.

Oral Exercise. — From one of your lessons for the day, or from a page of a magazine or a column of a newspaper, select all the coördinate conjunctions and show what they connect.

Punctuation. — These customs in punctuation have been touched upon before, but are repeated here for further practice, and to call attention in this connection to some points not mentioned earlier.

1. A series of words, phrases, or clauses (three or more) is separated by commas, even when the last two are joined by a coördinate conjunction.

They traveled in Italy, Turkey, and Egypt last year.

Those boys always have a jolly time whether in school, at home, or in their summer camp.

The engineer reported that he had visited the mine, that he had investigated it, and that it was a valuable property.

2. When the independent clauses of a compound sentence are connected by a coördinate conjunction, they are separated by a comma. But if the conjunction is omitted, a semicolon is used unless the clauses are very short and similarly constructed.

She seemed to have very good reasons for her decision, but she did not give them.

Red cedar makes a beautiful chest; camphorwood makes a better.

3. The comma is not used where only the predicate is compounded.

The ship came in during the night and anchored in the outer harbor.

Punctuate the following sentences and give the reasons for the marks you use:

1. The day was gloomy but we had a cheerful fire in the grate.
2. Our friends did not go to England last summer they went to Colorado.
3. Caswell Carl Neal and Billy planned to go to see the circus unload but found the trains all in when they got up.
4. I write with ink or use a pencil.
5. Either the children will all go together or they will go in groups with their parents.
6. Six new books stood on a shelf and writing materials lay on the desk.
7. Books stood on a shelf writing materials lay on the desk.
8. Not only were the trains delayed but also travel by automobile was difficult.
9. Neither was it possible to travel by train nor could we go in our own car.
10. Old furniture was repaired in the shop and later sold in the retail store.
11. Plan to go yourself or at least send somebody in your place.
12. The play was given on the school stage while you were away at Thanksgiving time or during your illness in March.
13. He did not go to Havana he went to Honolulu.
14. Our dog is very happy with the boys in the house at play or upon a hunt.
15. Be sure to come to the game yourself and bring two or three friends if you can.
16. The book was small and thin but the type was fairly large clear and well set.
17. Books should always be printed in clear type for nothing is so distressing as a strain upon the eyes.

18. You must call your dog away or I shall not dare to open your front gate.
19. Flax is the source of linen fibre cocoons that of silk.
20. Copy all of the page exactly and hand the work to your teacher to-morrow.
21. Woolen cloth shrinks when it is washed in hot water but it can be cleansed without shrinking if one uses moderately warm water.
22. White syrup is used in making some candies others are made entirely of sugar.
23. Fresh grated cocoanut is better but the shredded cocoanut sold in packages will do very well.
24. A climbing rose covered the south wall and the awning shaded the window.
25. By this time the clouds covered the sky but it had not yet begun to rain.

LESSON 29

SUBORDINATE CONJUNCTIONS

Such words, as *when*, *where*, *while*, *since*, *if*, *because*, *whether*, *than*, *as*, *that*, *though*, *although*, *lest*, and *unless*, serve to connect subordinate clauses with the words in the main clauses which they modify. Such words are called subordinate conjunctions.

As it is with prepositions, so it is with subordinate conjunctions: sometimes two words act as one conjunction. These groups are *as if*, *as . . . as*, *so as*, *provided that*, and *even if*. In most cases the extra word may be parsed separately; but it is simpler and just as satisfactory to regard the group as a single conjunction.

Examples:

1. Oak leaves take on beautiful colors *when* the early frosts come.
2. They will respond *if* they are called.
3. They will respond *if* called.

4. Mr. Monroe decided *that* his daughter had better go on to school another year.
5. Clark is taller *than* his brother (is tall).
6. Is this the hat *which* you have selected?

OBSERVATIONS

1. Most of the subordinate conjunctions do the work of some other part of speech, in addition to their own work. In the first sentence, *when* is an adverb of time as well as a conjunction. *If*, in the second and third, is an adverb of condition. *Which*, in the sixth, is a relative pronoun. *That*, in the fourth, is only a conjunction. Where a word fills a double office, — conjunction and adverb, or conjunction and pronoun, — you may call it by either of its names, or combine the two into conjunctive-adverb, or conjunctive-pronoun (relative pronoun).

2. While it is always the business of the subordinate conjunction to connect a subordinate clause to some word in an independent clause, the subordinate clause may be only partly expressed. The third sentence omits both the subject and the asserting part of the predicate of the subordinate clause. When you analyze such an elliptical, short-cut clause, supply the missing parts.

3. Subordinate clauses beginning with *than* or *as* are nearly always elliptical.

Is he as old *as* you (are old)?
Can you do that work better *than* Henry (can do it)?

Punctuation. — 1. A subordinate clause preceding its independent clause is set off by a comma.[1]

While we were eating, one of the old neighbors, a friend of ours, ran in for a short visit.

[1] The comma is not used if the subordinate clause is very short and very closely connected with the principal clause, as *If I were you I should not go.*

2. If the subordinate clause follows the main clause, it is not set off unless the meaning would be obscure, or the sentence misleading, without the comma.

The older people waited by the roadside while the children climbed the rock.

The party decided to eat the lunch, provided that water could be found there.

3. It happens sometimes that an adverb, such as *meanwhile*, *moreover*, *however*, *wherefore*, *therefore*, or *hence*, falls between the parts of a compound sentence. In such cases a semicolon is used to separate the independent clauses.

After camping for a week, we found that our supplies were exhausted; however, we were not far from a general store.

Punctuate the following sentences correctly and give the reason for using each mark.

1. When the water in the river is high trout-fishing is not good.
2. Could you punctuate this sentence if you knew no rules?
3. The newspaper account of the accident was very brief moreover it was inaccurate.
4. Since you have told us about the rules punctuation no longer seems to be a mystery.
5. They came to our city since the new post office was completed.
6. While I admit that what you say is true my opinion is not changed.
7. Their guests arrived while the Harrisons were playing tennis.
8. The visitors spent a pleasant hour under the trees on the lawn meanwhile Mrs. Harrison and Nell prepared lunch for them.
9. You may decide upon the evening's entertainment while they are finishing their lunch.
10. Whenever you see a dandelion in your lawn grass take a knife and cut it off below the crown.
11. It will not grow again if you do so.

LESSON 30

INTERJECTIONS

Exclamatory words, like *alas*, *pshaw*, *oh*, *O*, *fie*, *mercy*, *hurrah*, and *hail*, when used independently, are called interjections. They do not form a part of a sentence at all, but are mere indications of feeling, or of some emotion like surprise, disgust, disappointment, joy, or sorrow.

Punctuation. — When an interjection is used as a real exclamation, it is followed by an exclamation point. If, however, it is used merely as a mild, or rhetorical, exclamation, it is followed by a comma.

Examples:

1. Oh, to be sure, that may be true.
2. Mercy! what a fright that noise gave me!
3. Hurrah! hurrah! Harkness makes goal!
4. Hail! holy light, offspring of heaven.
5. O Sun in heaven! make light my darkened way.

Usage. — The capital *O*, without a comma, is used in addressing some object in awe or admiration or reverence. This is called *apostrophe*. *Oh* is used merely as a vocative or mild exclamation. Since *apostrophe* is a poetic figure of speech, the capital *O* is seen mostly in poetry, while the more common *oh* is seen both in prose and in poetry, wherever the sense does not demand the use of apostrophe.

PART III

SENTENCE ANALYSIS

Teaching Direction. — *The lessons in this part of the book are practice lessons in oral and written sentence analysis. Approximately all the useful facts of English grammar have been presented, either in Part I or Part II. What remains for Part III is to strengthen the impressions made by the earlier lessons, by means of additional exercises. Attention will be called from time to time to the English idioms which one meets while examining the structure of sentences, and explanations will be made as each difficulty or apparent oddity arises.*

Teachers who do not wish to teach what is commonly termed "technical grammar" should make use of the lessons in the Appendix for reference only. The author believes, however, that the information contained in these lessons is of considerable value to any pupil of junior-high-school age, and advises that all the lessons be taught, and that the pupils be drilled upon sentence analysis until they become familiar with these constructions that are a part of the idiomatic English in daily use in both speaking and writing. Any item that is found to be beyond the grasp of any individual pupil should, of course, be omitted until that pupil has reached the stage in his mental development when he can easily understand it.

LESSON 1

SIMPLE SENTENCES, WITH ONLY ADJECTIVE WORD MODIFIERS OF THE SUBJECT, AND ADVERBIAL WORD MODIFIERS OF THE PREDICATE

Teaching Direction. — *The sentences which follow are to be analyzed either orally or in writing. It is suggested that certain of the sentences, about one third or one fourth of each group, be*

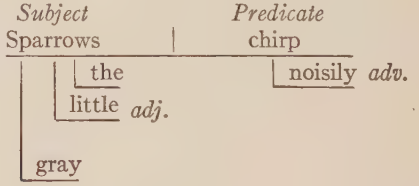
analyzed in writing outside the class. For the convenience of the teacher who has many papers to read, the author presents a simple shorthand form of written analysis, commonly called diagrams, and suggests that all the written analysis be presented in that form. The teacher must make frequent tests by means of both the oral and written analysis of the same sentence, to make sure that the shorthand means something and that it does not become the end instead of a humble means.

In the longer and more complicated sentences, where the pupil has difficulty in holding in mind at one time all the relationships of parts, the diagram will greatly aid him in visualizing those relationships simultaneously, and in holding them in mind without too great an effort.

Examples:

Sparrows chirp.

The little gray sparrows chirp noisily.



Exercises:

1. Seeds sprout.
2. White chalk breaks easily.
3. The aspen leaves rustled fitfully.
4. The thick, cold hail dashed down fiercely.
5. Pretty blue fringed gentians were blooming everywhere.
6. Timid green frogs croaked tremulously.
7. Softly fluttered the aspen leaves.
8. The bright round moon shone steadily there.
9. White cloud masses floated lazily by.

NOTE :— *Cloud* is regularly a noun, and *cloudy* an adjective. Here *cloud* is used instead of *cloudy*. The noun, for a time, becomes an adjective. This adjective use of a noun is a very common thing in English. The part of speech a word is, depends upon its use in the sentence. Here the word *cloud* is an adjective.

10. The yellow autumn leaves whirled away madly.
11. The timid child ran away home.

NOTE. — The noun *home* here gives the *direction toward which* a motion is made. This is one of the regular functions of adverbs. The child ran *homeward*. *Home* is a noun which here takes the place and fulfills the function of the adverb *homeward*. This is one of the adverbial uses of a noun.

12. The sturdy small boy walked four miles.
13. The little boy walked far.

NOTE. — The adverb *far* and the noun *miles* both give *measure of distance*. This is another function of adverbs, and another noun used as an adverb.

14. The children's game was quickly played.
15. Their interest lagged.

NOTE. — *Children's* and *their* both serve to modify nouns. The possessive forms of both nouns and pronouns always act like adjectives in sentences.

16. Artists' materials are sold here.
17. The boys' boat quickly overturned.
18. My pet rabbit is white.
19. His big ears point forward.
20. This girl's loaf baked well.

NOTE. — Observe that while *girl's* is an adjective modifier it takes an adjective modifier itself like any other noun — not an adverbial modifier. *This* is a demonstrative adjective.

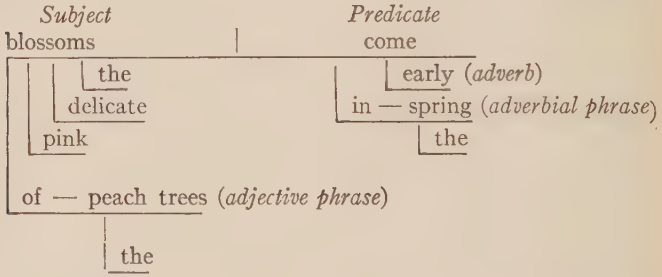
Assignment. — In these sentences you have had one case of a noun used as an adjective and one of another noun as an adverb. Think of, or find, two other examples of each of these uses, and report them to the class.

LESSON 2

SIMPLE SENTENCES, WITH ADJECTIVE PHRASES MODIFYING THE SUBJECTS, AND ADVERBIAL PHRASES MODIFYING THE PREDICATES

Definition. — A simple sentence is one that makes only one predication. It has, therefore, but one subject and predicate. It may have modifying words and phrases, but no modifying clause, for that would bring in another subject and predicate.

Examples: — The delicate pink blossoms of the peach tree come early in the spring.



Notice the group of adjectives that point out and describe *blossoms*. Observe also that the group of words *of the peach trees* also describes *blossoms*, just as *delicate* and *pink* do. This phrase is made up of a preposition and its accompanying noun. The other phrase *in the spring*, also made up of a preposition and a noun, performs the same function in the sentence that the adverb *early* does. It tells the time of the blooming.

Definitions. — A phrase is a group of related words, having no subject or predicate, but calling to mind a mental

picture. The essential parts of a modifying phrase are usually a preposition or a participle and an accompanying noun or pronoun.

An adjective phrase is one which, like an adjective, modifies a noun or pronoun.

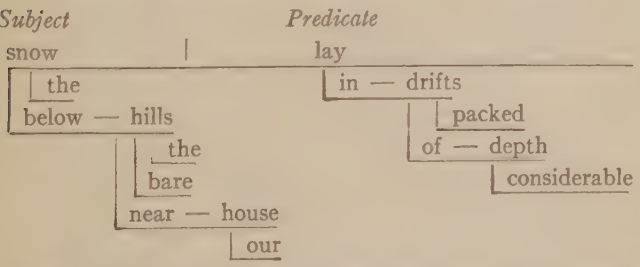
An adverbial phrase is one which, like an adverb, modifies a verb, an adjective, or another adverb.

Exercises. — Analyze the following sentences orally or in writing, as your teacher may direct.

1. The envelopes in the package were made of white paper.
2. The picture over the mantel was painted by my sister.
3. Soldiers of his company marched through town.
4. The pole between the houses fell into our back yard.
5. The tired girl at the window listened very attentively to the story.
6. The needle under the glass always points to the north.

Of course, it is quite possible to have these words or phrases modified by still other words or phrases. In the sentences which follow, if that occurs, state whether the additional word or phrase is adjective or adverbial.

7. The snow below the bare hills near our house lay in packed drifts of considerable depth.



8. The timid chipmunk from the rock beside our summer cabin came to the door of the back porch for peanuts.

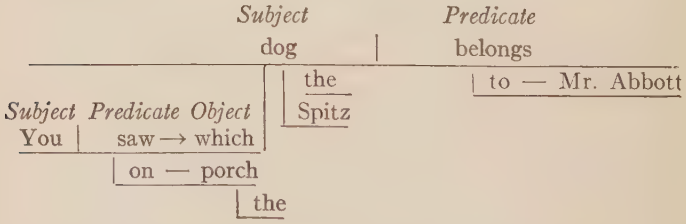
9. In the spring a livelier crimson comes upon the burnished dove.
10. Across the wider part of the meadow Lloyd's friend ran with the pheasant's eggs.
11. This friend of Lloyd ran across the wider part of the meadow with the eggs of a pheasant.
12. Under the spreading chestnut tree, The village smithy stands.

LESSON 3

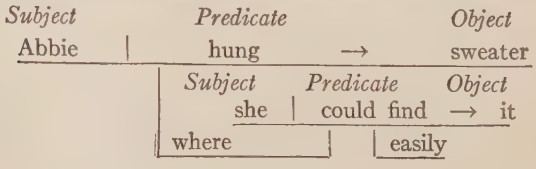
COMPLEX SENTENCES WITH AN ADJECTIVE CLAUSE MODIFYING THE SUBJECT OR AN ADVERBIAL CLAUSE MODIFYING THE PREDICATE

Definition. — A complex sentence is one which contains one or more subordinate clauses.

Examples. — The Spitz dog which you saw on the porch belongs to Mr. Abbott.



Abbie hung her sweater where she could find it easily.

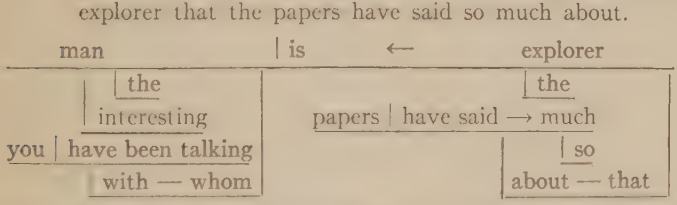


NOTE. — The diagram shows, in the first sentence, that the clause is an adjective modifier of *dog*, and that the word which connects the subordinate clause with the word which it modifies is a conjunctive (relative) pronoun, and is the object of *saw*.

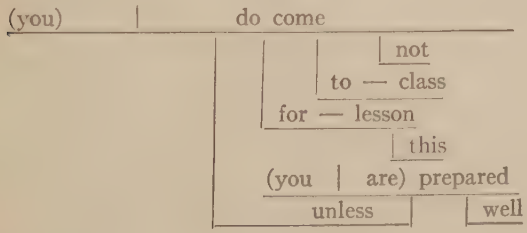
In the second sentence, the clause is an adverbial modifier. *Where* is both a conjunction and an adverb. The diagram shows this double function of the word *where*.

Exercises:

1. May's cousin, who came early, had prepared the lunch before she left home.
2. Ronald played the flute when he was a small boy.
3. If you will go with me, I will show you a yellow warbler's nest.
4. The aqueduct which brings the water to the city is forty miles long.
5. The interesting man whom you have been talking with is the explorer that the papers have said so much about.



6. The geography class recited while you were out of the room.
7. Which would you choose if you had a choice?
8. Arthur's uncle bought the steamer chair while he was traveling in South America.
9. Do not come to the class for this lesson unless well prepared.



10. If thoroughly satisfied with the offer, you should accept it.
11. While walking down Eighth Street, Fannie read the letter she had just got from the postman.
12. The boys who were playing soldier set up a tent that they had made of an old piece of canvas.

LESSON 4

SENTENCES CONTAINING MODIFYING PHRASES MADE WITH PARTICIPLES AND ACCOMPANYING NOUNS AND PRONOUNS

There are two common uses of the participles. The one is as a part of a verb phrase; the other as an adjective modifier.

1. As a word in a verb phrase:

We have been *skating* on the lake.

2. As an adjective modifier:

There is an old willow tree *standing* on the shore of the lake.

Have been skating is the asserting (predicate) part of the first sentence. Observe that the participle *skating* alone cannot make a complete predication.

Standing describes *willow tree* just as an adjective might.

The past participles of weak verbs, and of some strong verbs also, have the same forms as the past tense forms of the same verbs:

print	printed	printed
paint	painted	painted
bind	bound	bound

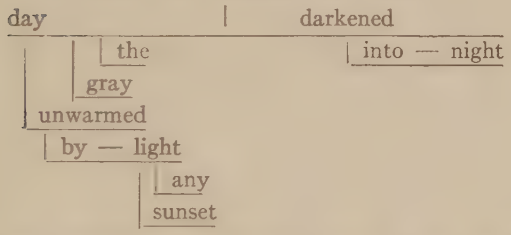
Where these forms occur, it is only by observing their use in the sentence that one can determine which is participle and which is the asserting form of the verb.

Another regular use of the participle, the use in *absolute phrases*, should be kept in mind here.

The ice *being* thin, we were obliged to keep near the shore.

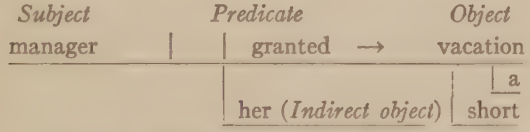
SENTENCES FOR ANALYSIS

Unwarmed by any sunset light
The gray day darkened into night.



It was an *unwarmed* (adjective) day. The participle *unwarmed* is in its turn modified by the adverbial phrase *by any sunset light.*

Clara's reasons having been given, the manager granted her a short vacation.



Clara's reasons having been given is an absolute phrase, and cannot modify *manager* or anything else in the sentence.

Analyze orally, or diagram, the following sentences, giving special attention to the function of the participle in the sentence:

1. The day of the examination found Harry thoroughly prepared.
2. Being well prepared, he found the examination easy.
3. Having been thoroughly prepared, Harry went up for his examination with confidence.

4. His lessons having been thoroughly learned, Harry went into the examination with all confidence.
5. Harry had been preparing for the examination through the entire summer.
6. They passed a flat rock standing by the roadside and looking like a primitive altar.
7. My friend was watching a plover running through the marsh grass.
8. Mr. Weaver is planning a new house.
9. Mr. Weaver is planning to build a new house.
10. Mr. Weaver, planning to build his new house, found that prices for material had risen.

NOTE. — You will observe in sentences 8, 9, and 10 that participles made from transitive verbs may be used as adjective modifiers, and at the same time take objects, directly, like verbs, thus building up a participial phrase. Notice, also, in 9 and 10, that the object of a participle may be an infinitive. Remember that the infinitive is just the noun form of a verb. The regular idiom is *planning to build*, not *planning on building*.

11. We met a man carrying a full basket of fine trout caught in the Laramie.
12. In the cloak-shop where Zelig worked, he stood daily, brandishing his heavy iron on the sizzling cloth, hardly ever glancing about him.

LESSON 5

COMPOUND SENTENCES, AND SENTENCES CONTAINING COMPOUND SUBJECTS, COMPOUND PREDICATE VERBS, OR COMPOUND PREDICATE COMPLEMENTS

Punctuation.— 1. The clauses of a compound sentence are separated by commas if they are connected by one of the simple conjunctions *and*, *but*, or *for*.

The material in your story is good, but the penmanship is very poor.

You may go to the game, for it promises to be a good one.

Find the place on the map, and then determine the distance from Chicago.

2. The clauses of a compound sentence are separated by semicolons if there is no conjunction used to join them.

They did not travel then in Pullman cars; they had only prairie schooners.

3. The clauses of a compound sentence are separated by semicolons if one of the conjunctive adverbs is dropped in between these clauses. The conjunctive adverbs are: *however, moreover hence, accordingly, nevertheless, so, also, otherwise,* and similar words.

A light snow covered the ground; otherwise the cold would have damaged the crops.

The men were urged to enlist; moreover, they were convinced that it was their duty.

4. Compound elements, such as subject, predicate, or object, are not separated by commas unless they occur in a series of three or more.

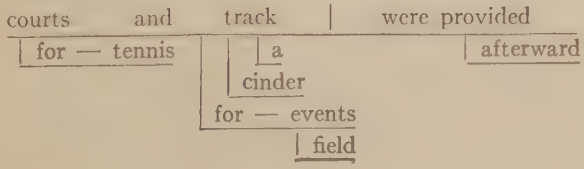
Each player made a great effort and succeeded in making his gain.

The pencils are shaped, glued, and polished before the paint is applied.

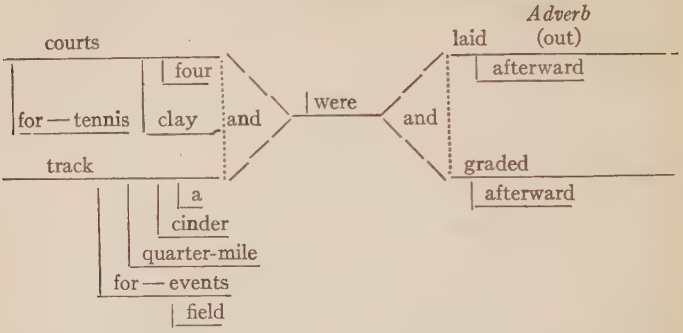
Notice that the recent custom is to insert the comma before the *and* in a series.

A FORM FOR WRITTEN ANALYSIS

Courts for tennis and a cinder track for field events were provided afterward.

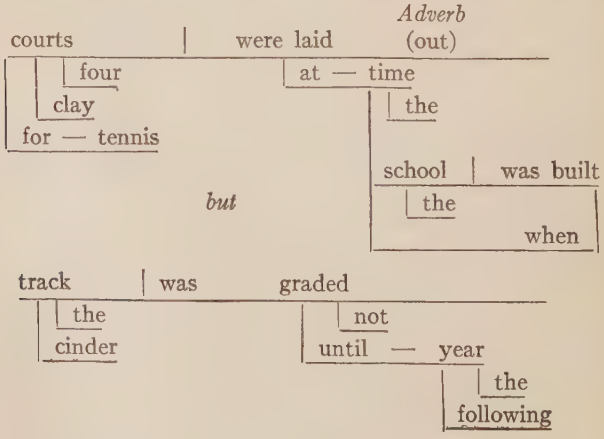


Four clay courts for tennis and a quarter-mile cinder track for field events were laid out and graded afterward.



Make your diagrams just as simple as possible. There is no *one* right way of doing this. Strive to make the diagram show as many of the facts about the syntax of the sentence as possible, and to that end construct the diagram in any way you please.

Four clay courts were laid out for tennis at the time when the school was built, but the cinder track was not graded until the year following.



SENTENCES FOR ANALYSIS

1. The books and papers are kept in the upper drawer of the desk.
2. When you have finished your work, collect all the pencils, drawing pads, and erasers.
3. The captain tried to get all his men to play together, but succeeded only partially.
4. All of the older players did good team work, but the new recruits played as individuals.
5. The bearings and rods are turned and polished by machines.
6. A light snow covered the ground; otherwise the cold would have damaged the crops.
7. The men were urged to enlist; moreover, they were convinced that it was their duty.
8. Each player made a great effort and succeeded in making his gain.
9. They did not travel then in Pullman cars; they had only prairie schooners.
10. Gold, silver, lead, and tungsten are mined and refined in Colorado.
11. Polly was very tired, but she slowly plodded along the dusty road toward home.
12. The Scout-Master urged the boys to hurry; not a moment could be spared.
13. I was very hungry, and my whole stock of cash was a Dutch dollar and about a shilling.
14. Every man desires to live long, but no man wants to grow old.
15. Of thy unspoken word thou art master; thy spoken word is master of thee.
16. Straws float upon the surface, but pearls lie at the bottom of the stream.
17. Bad men excuse their faults; good men abandon them.
18. Knock at the door of Old King Cole and ask the way to the village.
19. He gave one toys, the other books.
20. Places near the sea are not extremely cold in winter, nor are they very warm in summer.
21. The wind and the rain are over, the clouds are divided in the heavens, and over the green hills flies the inconstant sun.

LESSON 6

MISCELLANEOUS SENTENCES FOR ANALYSIS

1. Weakness on both sides is the motto of all quarrels.
2. Come, give us a taste of your quality.
3. Things that have a common quality ever seek their kind.
4. Three may keep a secret if two of them are dead.
5. All things come round to him who will but wait.
6. She sat like patience on a monument,
   Smiling at grief.
7. There is a tide in the affairs of men,
   Which, taken at the flood, leads on to fortune.
8. The sea appears all golden beneath the sunlit sky.
9. Sweetest melodies are those that are by distance made more sweet.
10. Heard melodies are sweet, but those unheard are sweeter.
11. A good intention clothes itself with sudden power.
12. No change of circumstance can repair a defect of character.
13. He hath a daily beauty in his life
    That makes me ugly.
14. Men can counsel and speak comfort to that grief which they themselves do not feel.
15. The world is grown so bad that wrens make prey where eagles dare not perch.
16. It is as easy to draw back a stone thrown with force from the hand, as to recall a word once spoken.
17. To have ideas is to gather flowers; to think is to weave them into garlands.
18. If you do not wish a man to do a thing, get him to talk about it.
19. A little fire is quickly trodden out;
    Which, being suffered, rivers cannot quench.
20. No one is useless in this world who lightens the burdens of it for another.
21. Count that day lost whose low descending sun
    Views from thy hand no worthy action done.
22. Through tattered clothes small vices do appear;
    Robes and furred gowns hide all.
23. One touch of nature makes the whole world kin.
24. Wise sayings often fall on barren ground, but a kind word is never thrown away.

LESSON 7

MISCELLANEOUS SENTENCES FOR ANALYSIS

(Continued)

1. The happiest man is he who, being above the troubles which money brings, has his hands the fullest of work.
2. Young men who spend many years at school and college are too apt to forget the great end of life, which is to be and to do, not to read and brood over what other men have been and done.
3. The redwoods, burying their moccasined feet in the red soil, stood in Indian file along the track, trailing an uncouth benediction from their bending boughs upon the passing bier.
4. Whither, midst falling dew,
   While glow the heavens with the last steps of day.
   Far, through their rosy depths, dost thou pursue
   Thy solitary way?
5. Vainly the fowler's eye
   Might mark thy distant flight to do thee wrong,
   As, darkly painted on the crimson sky,
   Thy figure floats along.
6. He, who, from zone to zone,
   Guides through the boundless sky thy certain flight,
   In the long way that I must tread alone
   Will lead my steps aright.
7. Some say that ever 'gainst (when) that season comes
   Wherein our Saviour's birth is celebrated,
   The bird of dawning singeth all night long:
   And then, they say, no spirit dares stir abroad;
   The nights are wholesome; then no planets strike,
   No fairy takes (charms or enchants), nor witch hath power to charm,
   So hallowed and so gracious is the time.
8. Men have been more interested in education during the last years than they have been for many generations.

9. The problem of modern education has been growing more complex with the increasing complexity of modern life.
10. City children confined in flats and apartment houses have no wood to chop, no cows to milk, no hens to feed.
11. If they are to learn anything of the world that feeds them, clothes them, and warms them, they must learn it out of books.
12. Parents alarmed at what children do not know demand that schools teach more subjects.
13. New sciences have arisen, new languages and literature have been discovered, and new histories have been unearthed.
14. The boy who is going into business wants a business education.
15. The girl who is going to marry wants training in home economics.
16. Of all personal problems which affect the community, the problem of religious belief, affiliation, and action is the greatest.
17. The new generation cannot wholly know the barriers of custom and tradition which women had to break down before they attained their new position.
18. The new generation bears upon its shoulders the burden of peace, the burden of adjustment of boundaries, and of international organization.

NOTE. — The sentences in these lists are taken from many sources. The authorship is usually apparent in the quoted sentence, without specific mention; but it seems fitting to say that, in this final group of sentences, 8 to 18 are quoted from *Youth and the New World*. Edited by Ralph P. Boas, Atlantic Monthly Press.

PART IV

MATERIALS FOR REFERENCES

I

PUNCTUATION

What follows is a set of working rules for punctuation, such as anyone who writes needs to know and use. While it is a tabulation of the minimum amount of punctuation for those who write, it is sufficient for all practical purposes.

All the rules have been stated, one at a time, in appropriate places throughout the book. They are brought together here for ready reference.

The rules of punctuation which are employed in all correspondence and in straightforward print are so simple and so few "that the wayfaring man, though a fool," may learn the facts in three or four lessons. Of course, reducing what he knows about punctuation to habitual use requires time and practice.

PERIODS AND QUESTION MARKS

1. Use a question mark at the end of a direct question.
2. Use a period after an abbreviation, and at the end of a declarative or imperative sentence.

COMMAS

1. Use commas to set off vocatives and appositives.

Example. — I declare, *Henry (vocative)*, you do not seem to remember that this mark, *the comma (appositive)*, has any special uses.

2. Use commas to set off words and phrases inserted in a sentence in a parenthetical way, such as *however*, *I suppose*, *of course*, etc.

Example. — You know, *I suppose*, that the statement is untrue. It makes very little difference, *however*.

3. Use a comma to separate short, simple coördinate clauses connected by *and*, *but*, or *for*, and the other simple conjunctions.

Example. — I met the man yesterday, talked with him a few minutes, and directed him to the Atlantic office.

4. Use a comma to set off a dependent clause preceding its independent clause.

Example. — While we were eating, a small boy, the son of one of the natives, came running toward our camp. (Try this without commas.)

5. Use a comma between any sentence elements that might be improperly read together if the comma were omitted.

Example. — On the walk leading to the cellar, steps were heard.

6. Use commas to separate all the members of a series of words, phrases, or clauses, as in this sentence.

7. If two adjectives are almost parallel in meaning, they should be separated by a comma.

Right: A lazy, dreamy afternoon.
Right: A big gray coyote.

8. Set off a nonrestrictive clause with a comma, but not a restrictive clause.

Example. — Dr. Eliot, who was formerly president of Harvard University, spoke to the assembled group.

9. In writing conversation set off the author's guide-words.

Example. — "This thing is an outrage," he asserted warmly. "I resent the statement."

10. Use a comma to set off an absolute phrase.

Example. — The clouds having cleared away, we decided to go on with our plans.

SEMICOLONS

1. Use a semicolon to separate clauses of a compound sentence that are not joined by any conjunction, or that are joined by one of the conjunctive adverbs *so*, *therefore*, *moreover*, *also*, *then*, *besides*, and similar words.

2. Use a semicolon to separate the clauses of a compound sentence, if the clauses are long and have commas within themselves; or in any case where a comma would not be a mark sufficiently strong to make the meaning clear.

QUOTATION MARKS

1. Use double quotation marks around all parts of a sentence that are directly quoted.

2. Use single quotation marks to enclose a quotation within a quotation.

THREE DON'TS

1. *Don't* use any punctuation mark unless you *know* a specific reason for it.

2. *Don't* use dashes for periods, or vaguely for all kinds of marks when in doubt.

3 *Don't* use either single or double quotation marks with indirect quotations. The following sentence is correctly punctuated: The referee declared that the goal was fairly made.

II

COMMON ERRORS IN ENGLISH

The list of errors tabulated here is only a suggestion, to pupils and teachers, of things to be avoided. No one pupil will make all these mistakes. It will be well for each pupil, with the help of the teacher and fellow pupils, to check with a pencil each of the incorrect forms to which he is addicted, and then conscientiously avoid each one of them.

The list does not, of course, contain all the possible errors that children make. Children in New England do not make the same mistakes that children in the Southern States make. Nor do these make the mistakes that are common in the Middle West, the Rocky Mountain, or the Pacific, states. One family or group of families has its own errors, and another family or group has its.

Space is left at the end of this list for additional personal errors, including provincialisms.

1. *The* "loose and," an' nen, and so, *etc.* — This is the habit of running all of one's speech together by using *and's* to connect the statements.

Example. — They all came in and got warm, and then put on their sweaters and went back and skated till nearly dark, and the boys had built up a big fire and it had burned down to a fine bed of coals and was just the thing to roast the wienies over.

2. *Lack of* "sentence sense." — Many people have no clear notion of what properly constitutes a sentence. This lack does not show itself much in speaking, but it is apparent to the eye in writing. It appears in two forms: First, a writer will run two complete, independent statements together with no punctuation between, or with only a comma.

Example. — Cousin George came on the five o'clock train, this was quite a surprise to us.

Second, a writer will punctuate a phrase or a subordinate clause as if it were a sentence.

Example. — We had a good supper ready for him, though. When we had got through talking.

3. *The habit of beginning sentences with* "well ('ull), why (w'y)," *etc.* — The occasional use of *well* and *why* is not especially bad in free-and-easy oral speech. These are bad only when they become habits.

4. *Faulty pronunciation and enunciation of words frequently used.* — No two boys or girls would be found to have the same set of troublesome words; the lists overlap. One group of pupils used the following words in the faulty manner indicated. Perhaps you have some of these faults, and still others not listed here. Get someone who hears you speak often to set down your list of incorrect pronunciation or hazy enunciations.

	Mispronounced		*Mispronounced*
from	frum	just	jist, *or* jest
was	wuz, *or* uz	been	ben
cause	cuz	come here	come 'eer
thought	thot	did you	ju
gets	gits	of	a, *or* u, *or* uv
picture	pitcher	about	'bout
pretty	purty	when	wen
can	kin	something	sumpin
catch	ketch	there	they
hungry	hongry	body	buddy
ate	et	then	'en
drowned	drownded	used to	useto
them	'em, *or* 'um	our	are
stole	stoled	have	hev
give me	gimme	wished	wushed

	Mispronounced		*Mispronounced*
four	for	slept	slep
had	hed	across	acrost
told	tole	kind of	kinda
well	'ull	poems	pomes
why	w'y	geography	geogafy
wanted to	wanda	hundred	hunderd
going to	gona	understand	un'erstan'
once	onct	their	thur
men	min	got to	gotta
far	fur	do you	d'ye
root	rut	hallooed	hollered
you	yŭ	going	agoin', *or* goin'
all right	awright	scared	skeered
asked	ast	engine	injun

5. *The* "irrelevant so." — *So* is often used between two statements when the second is not a conclusion from the first.

Example. — I am going into the eighth grade this year, so school begins on the first Tuesday in September.

6. *The* "'cause-and-because" *chain.* — Some people, instead of connecting all their sentences with the "loose and" or "and so," use *'cause* and *because* for the same purpose.

Example. — You can have a plain tailored hat for Sunday just as you can for week days, *because* I think black is a good color to wear with a tailored hat *because* you can wear it with any dress.

The second *because* is properly used in that place. It states a reason.

7. *The False Conditional:*

Wrong: Three and four *would be* seven.
Correct: Three and four *are* seven.

8. *Definition by using a time or place clause:*

Wrong: An eclipse is when the earth is between the sun and moon.

Correct: An eclipse is caused by the earth coming between the sun and moon.

Wrong: Measles are where you all break out in little red spots.

9. *Wrong approach to a statement:*

Awkward beginning: To stop bleeding, if you cut an artery, why you have to tie the artery.

More direct beginning: If you cut an artery, you must tie it to stop the bleeding.

10. *Wandering thought.* — There are a number of expressions used in speech which indicate that the speaker has nothing clearly in mind to say, or that the thought has escaped before being completed. Among these are:

(*a*) Beginning sentences with "Well — a," "Why — a," "W'y — a," "Er," etc.

(*b*) Breaking into a sentence with "And — a," "Oh — a," etc.

(*c*) Incoherent trailing off without completing a sentence. The speaker sometimes ends by saying, "and things," "and everything," "and all," "and stuff," or nothing at all.

Example. — They are savage and can't read — and — and things.

(*d*) The use of a vague "like."

Examples. — You take it and just scrub like. Did you see a pencil like, with a case and the lead screwed in?

(*e*) Impossible double function given to some part of a sentence.

Example. — The first stick is fourteen inches long is the best length.

Here "fourteen inches long" is both the complement of the first "is" and the subject of the second.

11. *Double Negatives:*

Examples. — He did n't seem to see nothing. I could n't hardly get to school by nine o'clock.

12. *Pleonasm and Tautology.* — The first of these faults consists usually of using two subjects, one a noun and the other a pronoun.

Example. — Harry *he* tried it next.

Tautology is simply the use of unnecessary words.

Example. — Where was your hat *at?*

13. *Vulgarisms.* — There are words and forms of speech which are not used at all, in speech or writing, by cultured and educated people. These are called vulgarisms.

Examples. — *Ain't, nairy, this here, had n't orter.*

14. *Provincialisms.* — Certain words and constructions which are not generally used in all the English-speaking world, commonly occur in the oral speech in some limited section of the country.

Examples. — *Like* as a conjunction. (You do not write *like* you did ten years ago.) *Some place* for *somewhere*, *all the farther* for *as far as*, etc.

15. *Mistakes in the use of nouns:*

(*a*) Wrong form of plural in writing.
(*b*) Wrong possessive form in writing.

16. *Mistakes in the use of pronouns:*

(*a*) Wrong form, such as *hisself*, *theirselves*, etc.
(*b*) Vague use of *it* without an antecedent.

Example. — It says in the book that coal is mined in Wyoming.

(*c*) Wrong case form — nominative for objective, etc.
(*d*) The *habit* of using *you* impersonally. This is bad only when it becomes a habit. Used occasionally for the sake of vividness, it is permissible.
(*e*) A pronoun with only a vague antecedent, or no antecedent at all.

17. *Mistakes in the use of adjectives:*

(*a*) Pronouns used for adjectives.

Example. — Them boys.

(*b*) Poor or unidiomatic choice of adjectives.

Examples. — *Much* for *many*, *lot* for *many*, etc.

(*c*) Wrong form of comparative or superlative degree.

(*d*) Miscellaneous faults.

Examples. — *These kind of; they was* for *there was*, etc.

18. *Mistakes in the use of verbs:*

(*a*) Disagreement of the verb in person or number with the subject.

Example. — Each of the boys were present at noon.

Since *boys* is the nearest noun to the verb, by attraction it seems to affect one's choice of a verb. *Each*, the real subject, requires a singular verb.

(*b*) Present tense and past tense confused.

Examples. — She *run* up and said. She *come* to school late all last week.

(*c*) Past tense and past participle confused. This occurs only with a small group of troublesome verbs.

(*d*) Sequence of tenses.

(*e*) Regular and irregular verb forms confused.

Examples. — *Suspicioned* for *suspected*, *throwed* for *threw*, etc.

(*f*) Subjunctive disregarded in such expressions as, *If I were, if he were*, etc.

(*g*) Wrong verb used.

Examples. — *Set* for *sit*, *laid* for *lay*, *can* for *may*.

(*h*) Indiscriminate use of *shall* and *will*, *should* and *would*.

(*i*) Telescoping words in pronouncing.

Examples. — *Gotta* for *got to*, *gona* for *going to*, *hatta* for *have to*.

What are your errors in addition to the ones you have checked in this printed list?

1.
2.
3.
4.
5.
6.
7.
8.

III

SLANG

Make a list of the slang that you use and then check off each expression as soon as you conquer each expression and cease to use it.

APPENDIX

Additional Lessons for the Abler and More Advanced Pupils

LESSON A

PREDICATE COMPLEMENTS

With Intransitive Verbs

Teaching Direction.—*Notice the teaching directions at the beginning of Part III.*

There are several kinds of complements which it is not necessary for the school children to recognize by name; but the young person who is going to test his own speech by analysis needs to know that these are regular and acceptable forms of expression in English. All these complements are explained here, but it is advised that all except the first three be omitted. The information concerning the others is to be used largely for later reference, after the pupil has finished school. Some exercises in the recognition of these complements are here supplied.

Definition. — The complement of the predicate is the word or group of words which combines with the verb in such a way as to complete the predication.

Some verbs and verb phrases make a complete predicate without the help of a complement; but many require the help of a noun, pronoun, or adjective to complete the statement or question.

Predicate complete with a verb or verb phrase:

1. The horses *ran.*
2. The horses *had been running.*

Predicate requiring a complement:

1. The late flowers are *yellow.*
2. These flowers are *asters.*
3. She picked the *asters.*

Teach your pupils to indicate by labeling, if necessary, the various complements when they are using diagrams for written analysis.

THE COMPLEMENTS WITH INTRANSITIVE VERBS

1. **The predicate noun.** — The material was *bronze.*
2. **The predicate pronoun.** — The ring is *hers.*
3. **The predicate adjective.** — This apple is *ripe.*

Observe that the predicate noun completes the predication by naming the same thing that the subject names. The predicate pronoun and adjective complete the predication by modifying the subject like any adjective modifier.

4. **The adverbial predicate.** — With verbs of condition and motion the qualifying force of the predicate adjective is often distributed between the subject and the verb.

The president stands *firm.*
The boy came *running.*
The bell rings *clear* and *full.*

You see that this adverbial predicate is always an adjective in form. It does not end in *-ly* like many adverbs, but it *acts* like both adjective and adverb. *Firm* describes *the president* and also tells how he *stands*. If you wish to show merely how he stands, you would say *firmly*. *Running*, in the second sentence, describes the boy and also indicates the manner of his *coming*.

5. **The cognate object.** — We usually associate the term *object* with transitive verbs; but constructions that we call objects occur with intransitive verbs. These are the *cognate object*, the *indefinite object*, and the *reflexive object*. *Cognate* means *related to.* Some intransitive verbs are followed by nouns cognate in meaning with the verb itself, like *sing* and *song*, *run* and *race*. This related noun is called a *cognate object.*

He ran the *race* creditably.
She sang her *song* first.
They easily jump a sixteen-foot *jump.*

6. **The indefinite object.** — The word *it* is sometimes used without any antecedent as a kind of object with an intransitive verb, and is called *indefinite* because it does not refer to any particular thing. No other word besides *it* is so used.

We footed *it* (walked) across the fields.

Come and trip it (dance) as you go,
On the light fantastic toe.

7. The reflexive object. — Once in a while, in the Bible or in language imitating Biblical style, an intransitive verb is followed by a pronoun (not the reflexive pronoun with *self*) in such a way that the action indicated by the verb *reflects* upon the doer of the act.

He sat *him* down by the seaside and taught them.

The regular way of saying this is to use the *transitive* verb with a reflexive pronoun with *-self*. He *set himself* down, etc.

The reflexive object is a recognized grammatical expression.

8. **The factitive predicate adjective.** — The word *factitive* means *causative*.

She *sang* her throat hoarse.

Sang is an intransitive verb; but when we put the adjective *hoarse* with it, this word causes the intransitive verb to take an object. She *sang hoarse* her throat.

Subject	*Verb*	*Factitive Predicate Adjective*		*Object*
She	sang	(hoarse)	→	throat

SENTENCES FOR ANALYSIS

Omit all the sentences except those which contain the kinds of complements you have been taught in class.

1. The team came trotting down the field.
2. One word of praise made him happy.
3. I have fought a good fight.
4. That plainly dressed man is a great scholar.
5. I am sure I can walk it if you can.
6. Mary Harding has already been our secretary.
7. Now I lay me down to sleep.
8. The leader remained steadfast in his determination.
9. Her name is Clara.
10. Which one of those ladies is Mrs. Harrison?
11. That is she.
12. Albert has already walked his shoes thin.
13. The happiest man is he who, being above the troubles which money brings, has his hands the fullest of work.
14. Is your science teacher Mr. Albright?
15. Has he been a teacher very long?
16. As soon as you get the ball, go it.

17. Then I sat me down and thought it through.
18. He talked his audience drowsy.
19. Our biggest fish was a rainbow trout.
20. This celery is fresh, well bleached, and crisp.

LESSON B

PREDICATE COMPLEMENTS

With Transitive Verbs

The kinds of complements which go with the transitive verbs are only three, and these are simpler than those which accompany the intransitive. They are explained below. All these should be studied and understood.

1. **The object.** (Sometimes called the *object complement* or *the direct object.*)

They used red *tiles* on the roof
The club elected *Mr. Morse.*
The secretary notified *him.*

2. **The indirect object.**

The clerk handed *me* the book.
The clerk handed the book to me.

These two sentences say exactly the same thing, and both are good English. Both use the word *book* as the object. The second one uses a prepositional phrase to show *to whom* the book was given; the first uses the pronoun without the preposition. The first *me* is the indirect object of *gave.*

Subject	*Verb*	*Indirect Object*	*Object*
Clerk | the	gave	(me) →	book

3. **The factitive predicate adjective or noun.** (Sometimes called the *objective complement.*)

Either the adjective or the noun may be used with the transitive verb as a factitive predicate.

Starch makes cloth *stiff.*

		Factitive Predicate Adjective	*Object*
Starch	makes	(stiff) →	cloth

Makes stiff is equivalent to the one word *stiffens.*

The team elected Carter captain.

		Factitive Predicate Noun	*Object*
team	elected	(captain) →	Carter
The			

If you had such a word, *elected captain* would be equivalent to *captainated.*

Now change these active verbs into passive verb phrases, and you will observe that the factitive predicate adjective or noun becomes the ordinary predicate adjective or predicate noun.

Cloth is made stiff by starch.
Carter was elected captain by the team.

4. The retained object.

Examine these three sentences:

Her father gave her a watch.
A watch was given to her by her father.
She was given a watch by her father.

The third sentence is neither the usual active nor passive construction. The verb phrase is passive, but it is followed by an object. This is called the *retained object.* While it is used in informal speech to a limited extent, it is objected to by all careful writers and most correct speakers.

SENTENCES FOR ANALYSIS

1. His business brought him a fair income.
2. The nation calls every man to some duty.
3. She did what she could for the sick man.
4. Give him your best answer.
5. Could you bring me some samples of your prize corn?
6. Their sergeants made them good soldiers.
7. Martha accidentally broke a small vase.
8. Who planned the building which I see there among the trees?
9. The potter moulds common clay into beautiful shapes.
10. One touch of Nature makes the whole world kin.
11. Build thee more stately mansions, O my soul.
12. The walls were painted green and brown.

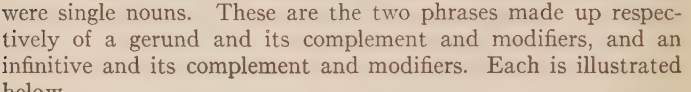
13. This circumstance made Martin think.
14. Give your friend an early answer if you can.
15. Her brother has been made captain.
16. The president commissioned her brother captain.
17. Maud bought herself a pair of skates.
18. Winter brings us a thoughtfulness of others.
19. What could give them greater pleasure?
20. This address made us all conscious of our patriotic duty.
21. Thou, in our wonder and astonishment,
Hast built thyself a livelong monument.

LESSON C

SUBSTANTIVE USES OF PHRASES (PARTICIPIAL, GERUND, AND INFINITIVE)

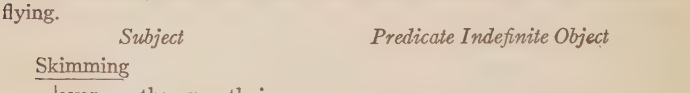
Two kinds of word-groups may be used in sentences as if they were single nouns. These are the two phrases made up respectively of a gerund and its complement and modifiers, and an infinitive and its complement and modifiers. Each is illustrated below.

1. Skimming over the smooth ice gave the skaters the sensation of flying.



The subject is the gerund *skimming*, with its modifying phrase *over the smooth ice.*

2. Driving a high-powered motor car required skill and coolness.



In this sentence the gerund *driving*, with its object and attached words taken together, makes up the subject of the verb *requires*.

3. To drive a high-powered motor car requires skill and coolness.

This sentence has the infinitive with *to* as a foundation for its substantive phrase subject, instead of the other infinitive, the gerund in *-ing*. Otherwise the sentences are the same.

SENTENCES FOR ANALYSIS

1. His occupation is mending antique furniture.
2. He tried to mend a colonial armchair of oak.
3. Our Persian cat walked through the room without making a sound.
4. To be constantly occupied in some useful work was his wish.
5. His wish was to be occupied in some useful work.
6. He tried to be constantly occupied in some useful work.
7. He that is good at making excuses is seldom good at anything else.
8. Mary's common fault was speaking without thinking.
9. To speak without thought is to be constantly at fault.
10. Morris's most annoying fault was forgetting his promises.
11. He constantly tried to remember what he had promised.
12. Forgetting his promises was his most annoying fault.
13. Passing through a dark ravine caused the driver to lose his way.
14. We had no mishap on the journey, except to lose our way for a short time.
15. To lose one's way on a strange road at night is annoying.

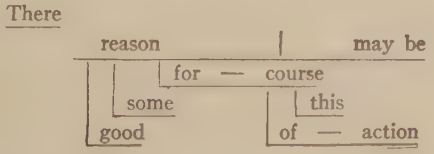
LESSON D

EXPLETIVES *IT* AND *THERE*

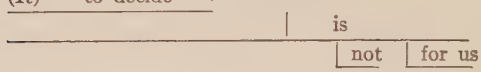
It and *there*, when they are used merely to reverse the order of the subject and predicate, are called *expletives*. Sentences containing these are easily analyzed by omitting the expletive and restating the sentence in the usual order.

There may be some good reason for this course of action.

Expletive:



It is not for us to decide what to do.



SENTENCES FOR ANALYSIS

1. Are there any peaches left in the basket?
2. It had been decided to ask for a holiday.
3. There are times when patience becomes a mistake.
4. It is my cousin's intention to attend our school.
5. There came a voice from heaven.
6. There is as much eloquence in the tone of voice, in the eyes, and in the air of a speaker, as in his choice of words.
7. There were not more than twenty people present.
8. It is well to do one's best.
9. There is condemnation for one who does less than his best.
10. It is not known on whose advice he acted.
11. It is useless to try to make reparation.
12. Are there any letters for me this morning?
13. There is much music in this little instrument.
14. There are good reasons for his decision.
15. There are many things to be discussed.

LESSON E

SENTENCES CONTAINING PHRASES AND CLAUSES USED AS IF THEY WERE NOUNS

Frequently it happens that a group of words, either a phrase or a clause, serves as if it were a single noun. In other lessons you will see an infinitive group or a gerund group acting like a subject noun, a predicate noun, or an object complement. Since these groups are treated more fully elsewhere, they will be omitted here.

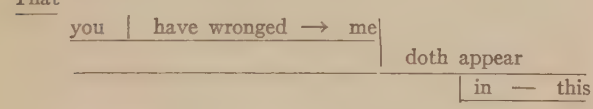
It is not an uncommon thing to find a prepositional phrase used as if it were one word. These are usually adjective uses, however, and are not nouns.

Examples:

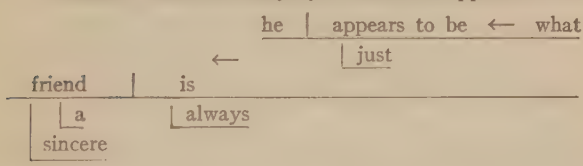
That seems of no value (valueless).
The man seemed in good health (healthy).

CLAUSES USED AS NOUNS

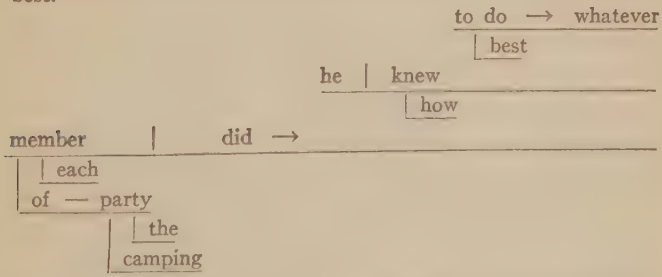
That you have wronged me doth appear in this.



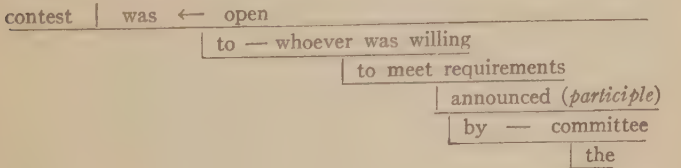
A sincere friend is always just what he appears to be.



Each member of the camping party did whatever he knew how to do best.



The contest was open to whoever was willing to meet the requirements announced by the committee.



SENTENCES FOR ANALYSIS

1. Only what was amusing interested her.
2. Your chum tries whatever promises amusement for the hour.
3. The house seemed to have windows of gold.
4. The old fellow was occupied with whatever work his hands found to do.
5. His work was whatever came to his hand.
6. That the statements of the witness were true was not questioned by the attorneys.
7. They declared that all the statements of the witness should be accepted.
8. The machine is run by whatever motive force is most convenient for use.
9. It was not denied that the money had disappeared.
10. The question was, had it been stolen, or simply lost.
11. This was what puzzled the whole group.
12. What confused the dogs was the trail crossing running water.
13. They easily found where the trail came to the edge of the water.
14. What one does of good or ill brings its own reward or pain.
15. Whatever a man sows shall be his harvest.

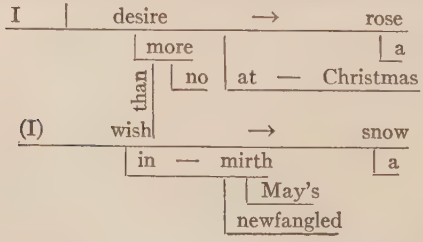
LESSON F

ELLIPTICAL SENTENCES

To analyze a sentence some part of which is so well understood that it is not necessary to say it, supply in the simplest form the missing part, and then proceed in the usual way.

Examples:

At Christmas I no more desire a rose,
Than wish a snow in May's newfangled mirth.



He in peace is wounded, not in war.

SENTENCES FOR ANALYSIS

1. Worth makes the man, and want of it the fellow.
2. Good words are better than bad strokes.
3. Nothing except a battle lost can be half as melancholy as a battle won.
4. This book is not so new as that.
5. It is not so easy to do this as you might think.
6. She plays the piano well, but not accurately.
7. He that is slow to anger is better than the mighty, And he that ruleth his spirit than he that taketh a city.
8. You can go to San Francisco more quickly than to Galveston.
9. His new book was not so much read as the old.
10. You look as if you were cold.
11. If urged, you may stay till Monday.
12. The merchant's profits were larger this year than last.
13. Have you had as many lessons as your sister?
14. Wilbur is not so tall as his brother.
15. Harry is older than Wilbur.

LESSON G

SENTENCES ILLUSTRATING ALL THE USES OF THE INFINITIVE WITH *TO*

The infinitive with *to* has five noun uses, three adjective uses, one adverbial, and one verb.

Noun Uses:

1. *Subject.* — *To lie* maliciously is infamous.
2. *Predicate noun.* — Your first obligation was *to speak* the truth.
3. *Object.* — They expect *to take* a long vacation.
4. *Object of a preposition.* — They will do nothing except *play*.
5. *Appositive.* — Their plan, *to fish* and *climb* mountains, seems a very interesting one.

Adjective Uses:

1. *Predicate adjective.* — Our plan seemed *to work* (workable) each day.

2. *Factitive predicate adjective.* — The invaders made the natives *work* for them.

3. *Adjective modifier of a noun.* — Houses *to rent* are scarce this year.

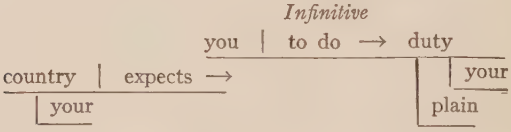
Adverbial use:

1. Folks would laugh *to see* (at seeing) a cinder-maid at a court ball.

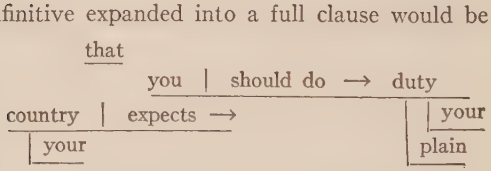
To see is an infinitive equivalent to the adverbial phrase *at seeing*. This last phrase is adverbial, and is made of a preposition and a gerund.

Infinitive as the verbal element in a subordinate clause condensed to a phrase:

1. Your country expects you to do your plain duty.



This infinitive expanded into a full clause would be:



SENTENCES FOR ANALYSIS

1. The robins learned to fly in one day.
2. To show fear will excite the animals.
3. To drive the car safely requires skill.
4. Necessity makes even a lazy man work.
5. She began to wind the big hall clock.
6. The school expects the team to win to-morrow.
7. The team expects to win the game to-morrow.
8. There is no art to find the mind's construction in the face.
9. I was sorry when I heard the news.
10. I was sorry at hearing the news.

11. I was sorry to hear the bad news.
12. It is useless to try to convince them.
13. The visitors came in for the purpose of hearing our little play.
14. The visitors came in to hear our little play.
15. I want you to work for success.
16. I want you to work to succeed.
17. Water to drink is supplied at sanitary fountains.
18. Drinking-water is plentiful.
19. The greatest of faults is to be conscious of none.
20. The explorers dared not go farther north.
21. That child is old enough to go to school.
22. I want you to write a story for Thursday.

LESSON H

SENTENCES ILLUSTRATING ALL THE USES OF THE PRESENT PARTICIPLE IN *-ING* AND THE GERUND (THE INFINITIVE IN *-ING*)

The participle ending in *-ing* is nearly always either a part of a verb phrase, or else an adjective modifier of a noun or pronoun. It should not be confused with the gerund. The gerund also ends in *-ing*, but it is used as a noun, and is very much like the infinitive. Some grammarians call it the infinitive in *-ing*.

Uses of participles in *ing*:

1. As a part of a verb phrase.

   The men were *mowing* the hay.

2. As an adjective modifier.

   The *running* horses dashed through the gateway.
   The men, *mowing* the hay, stopped for their lunch.

3. As a factitive predicate adjective.

   The officers kept the crowd *waiting* at the station.

Sometimes a participial phrase, while acting like an adjective modifier, has some adverbial force and gives a reason for a certain action.

Example:— Having received the appointment, he left for his new home.

Uses of gerunds (five noun uses):

1. As *subject.* — Constantly *pulling* the heavy sled tired the dogs.
2. As *predicate noun.* — Her occupation is *mending* china.
3. As *object.* — She learned *mending* china at a famous pottery.
4. As *object of a preposition.* — We could go no farther without roughly *mending* the roads.
5. As *appositive.* — Her work, successfully *mending* broken china, was all done at home.

All the gerunds shown above are made from transitive verbs. They act like nouns in the sentences, but take their objects directly like verbs, and they take adverbs as modifiers. If the gerund is made from an intransitive verb, it may be followed by an adjective complement or a noun or pronoun complement, just like any intransitive verb.

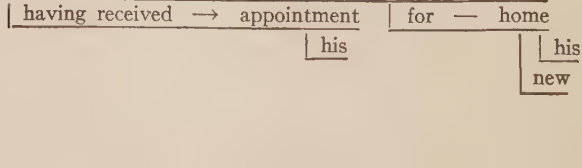
Example: — The secret of *being lovely* is *being unselfish.*

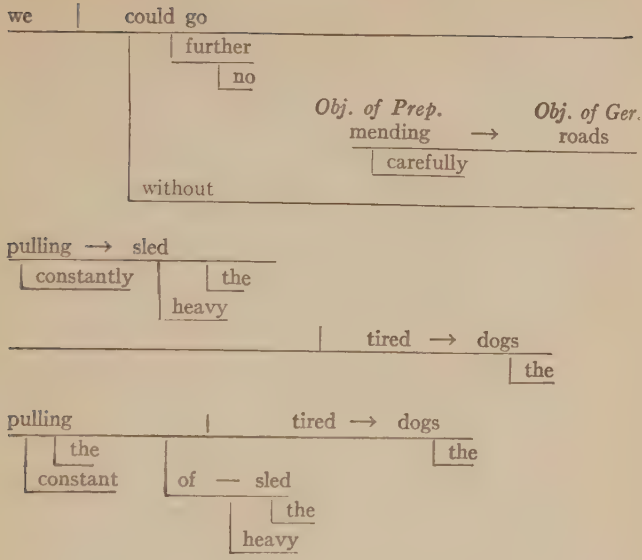
The *pure verbal noun* in *-ing* is always preceded by the definite article *the,* and modified by an adjective, instead of an adverb. It takes an object only after a preposition.

Example: — The constant *pulling* of the heavy sled tired the dogs.

The gerund is modified by nouns or pronouns in the possessive case — not the objective. We say: The teacher inquired about *his* being late. We do not say: The teacher inquired about *him* being late.

DIAGRAMS ILLUSTRATING THE USE OF PARTICIPLES AND GERUNDS





SENTENCES FOR ANALYSIS

1. Come in without making a noise.
2. Passing the big boulder, we were able to see the cottage there among the aspens.
3. Passing the bill was the business of the legislature for the day.
4. The teacher charged Fred with being the culprit.
5. Fred was charged with being guilty.
6. This work, caring for orphan children, has developed since the war began.
7. This man, having tried several trades, finally became a successful plumber.
8. Modeling small figures in clay is Flora's recreation.
9. Ultra-violet rays pass through the ether without really making a light.
10. Martha's greatest attraction was being constantly good-natured.
11. Martha's greatest attraction, being constantly jolly, made her many friends.
12. Her friends declared that Martha's greatest attraction was that of being constantly good-humored.

13. Have you ever tried keeping constantly in a good humor?
14. Seeking always to do his best, he soon became known as a careful workman.
15. Have you ever tried believing in your friend's honesty?
16. Indulging a vain hope of succeeding, we went on with the work.
17. They did not cease indulging a hope of success.
18. I remember reading that novel.
19. Carl's regular work is caring for his flock of chickens.
20. Neal began mounting his moths yesterday.
21. Finding that the wish constantly grew upon him, he began making preparations for the visit to his old home.
22. The book kept me reading all day.

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